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THE UNITED STATES AND CUBA

J. PHILLIPPO

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THE

UNITED STATES AND CUBA.

BY

JAMES M. PHILLIPPO,

AUTHOR OF "JAMAICA: ITS PAST AND PRESENT STATE," ETC.

"Venient annis saecula seris
Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum
Laxet novosque Tiphys detegat orbes,
Atque ingens pateat tellus
Nec sit terris Ultima Thule."

Sen. Med.

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PREFACE.

In presenting the following pages to the public, it will be expected that they should be accompanied by a few remarks by way of preface, explanatory of the Author's object in their publication, and of the circumstances which have induced him again to obtrude himself upon public attention.

The substance of this volume was contained in Lectures delivered before various Literary and Scientific Societies. In preparing these Lectures the Author had recourse to every publication within reach, referring to the subjects on which they treat. Thus, in addition to his own personal observation and experience, he has endeavoured to condense, from authentic but widely-scattered sources, as large a mass of information as possible into the smallest compass consistent with perspicuity.

In pursuing his task the writer was particularly struck with the fact, that, although histories of, and tours through, the United States are so numerous, no book existed, so far as he was able to ascertain, that could be put into the hands of an emigrant, or of any one anxious to acquire general information on the United States, conveying such knowledge as he would naturally desire, within reasonable limits and at a moderate expense.

The present volume, therefore, by its embracing so wide a range of topics, carefully collected and systematically arranged, —comprehending, indeed, almost every conceivable subject connected with the United States,—and presented in so compendious a form, the Author flatters himself will be regarded as supplying an important *desideratum*.

The Author is permitted to append to this preface the opinions of DR. WILLIAMS, of New York, and DR. WAYLAND, of Providence, to whom he had the pleasure of submitting his manuscript during his late visit to the United States.

The REV. WILLIAM R. WILLIAMS, D.D., New York, says:—

"The subscriber has had leisure to peruse but a small section in manuscript of the proposed work of Mr. Phillippo on the Institutions of the United States.

"Its Author, for many years an efficient and honoured missionary in the British West Indies, will be found, as the subscriber believes, to have scanned our country with the eye of an intelligent and practised, but kindly observer. And his new work will not, in interest or intrinsic merit, fall behind his former volume on Jamaica (the scene of his residence and toils),—a book which, some years since, introduced him so favourably, and to so many readers, in both America and Britain."

The REV. F. WAYLAND, D.D., LL.D., Providence, Rhode Island, says:—

"I have read the table of contents of Mr. Phillippo's work on the United States. The topics which he has selected seem to me to embrace all the most important points of interest which at once attract the attention of an enquirer concerning this country. From Mr. Phillippo's habits of correct observation, and from the knowledge I possess of his work on Jamaica, I have no doubt that his statements will be found eminently reliable and deeply interesting. I may also remark, in addition, that the success of Mr. Phillippo as a missionary in Jamaica, and the results of his labours for the improvement of that island, must endear him to every friend of humanity."

How far the writer has succeeded in accomplishing his object, and in justifying the opinion formed of his qualifications by these distinguished men, it remains for the public to determine.

London, November, 1857.

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THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL DIVISIONS, EXTENT, CONSTITUTION, &c.—American Continent. Geographical position. Extent. Political divisions. How distinguished. Scriptural evidence of the unity of origin of the human family. Probable migration of the first inhabitants of America. In what manner, and from what part of the world peopled. Obscurity of the early history of the North American Indians. Various theories on the subject. General conclusion as to the origin and early condition of the Indian tribes. Opinions of the identity of these both in North and South America, by the most eminent ethnologists. Reflections.

AMERICA, the largest of the four continental divisions of the globe, is supposed to be surrounded on all sides by the ocean, and stretches in an extensive range through every inhabited latitude of the world—from the regions of eternal snow to those where all the bloom of spring and all the exuberance of autumn are united. On the north is the Arctic, on the east the Atlantic, on the south the Antarctic, and on the west the Pacific ocean. It is the largest continuous mass of land on the surface of the earth, extending from 75° north to 55° south latitude, and lies between longitudes 20° and 170° west from Greenwich. It may be said to be about 8,000 miles in length, and 2,000 in width, having in its broadest part 40° of longitude. Its greatest length, from Point Beechy to the Arctic Sea, by a curve line drawn along the Rocky Mountains and the Cordillera of the Andes to the extremity of Cape Horn, is about 10,875 miles. The greatest breadth of North America, at the fifty-first parallel, from Cape St. Louis to the Pacific Ocean, is about 3,250 miles; and of South America, from Cape St. Roque, in Brazil, to Cape Blanco, in Peru, about 3,200 miles.*

* The greatest breadth of South America is said by other authorities to be from the Cape of St. Augustine in the south of Brazil east, to the South Sea near to Quito, estimated at about 3,000 miles.

This vast double continent is divided into North and South by the Canataguan chain of mountains between the provinces of Veragua and Panama in the Isthmus of Darien: the latter being a narrow slip of land of about fifty miles in diameter. North America comprises the northern division of the western continent, and extends from the Arctic Ocean to Panama; South America, from the same limit southward, to Cape Horn.

The whole continent of America may be said, more briefly and simply, to consist of two large peninsulas, divided by a narrow neck of land, denominated indifferently the Isthmus of Darien and Panama, one of which is called North, the other South America.

The northern division is shared principally between the United States, Mexico, and the British provinces of the Canadas. Southern America is chiefly possessed by the confederated States of Central America, Brazil; and Peru.

According to Baron Humboldt's computations, the continent of America, from the south-eastern extremity of the Isthmus of Panama to the parallel of 68°, forms an area of 607,337 square marine leagues; while South America comprises 571,290 square leagues. To the West Indies and Newfoundland is assigned a territorial surface of about 8,303 square leagues. The total is 1,186,930 square leagues, or about 15,000,000 square miles, with a population now amounting to 60,000,000.

The area of North America is usually calculated in English miles at 7,400,000; that of South America at 6,500,000; that of the West India Islands from 150,000 to 200,000; and that of Greenland at 000,000; making the total area 14,950,000.

The entire continent thus divided into North and South, forming, as already said, two grand peninsulas, united by the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, possesses some great physical characteristics. In the former part it is distinguished by its lakes; in the latter by the simplicity and grandeur of its natural features of plains and mountains; and in both by its mighty rivers.

Assuming, on the authority of Scripture, that the whole human race descended from one primeval pair, and that the whole, with the exception of Noah and his family, were involved in the general deluge, considering moreover the fact that the old and new continents are separated by seas and oceans, the question arises by what means and by which of the descendants of Noah was the continent of America originally peopled? It is not asserted that God in his original creation of the human species

made several races of men, but that he made of "one blood all the nations of men to dwell on all the face of the earth,"* thus causing all to descend from one primeval pair—one Adam, one Noah; "He fashioneth their hearts alike." "Have we not all one Father?" says the prophet; "hath not one God created us?"† We have no intimation anywhere in the sacred records that God made any more than one original human stock. In His designs men were never separated; for, however dissimilar in many respects the nations of men may become, though from various circumstances their colour may be changed,‡ though they may have formed different habits, still there is but one human body, coming into the world precisely in the same way, and nourished after the same manner. It is the being having a human body and a human soul proceeding from the same almighty Creator, made of the same material, and formed precisely in the same way, throughout every region of the world, amongst every people that has yet been discovered, but multiplied into a vast family, of which God is the Father, who is emphatically styled in Scripture, "the Father of the spirits of all flesh."

"Japheth," says a celebrated commentator, "signifies *enlargement*; and his boundaries have been wonderfully enlarged. Not only Europe, but Asia Minor, the whole of the vast regions of

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* Acts xvii. 26: "Made of one blood," &c.,—of one and the same nature. The design of the apostle was to counteract the vaunted opinion of the Athenians, that they sprang out of their own earth—were aborigines, and in nothing akin to any other nation.

† Malachi ii. 10.

‡ On the subject of the different complexions of men in different parts of the globe, Buffon, although he cannot be considered as one inclined to bear testimony to the truth of the Scriptures, states, "Man, though white in Europe, black in Africa, yellow in Asia, and red in America, is still the same animal, tinged only with the colour of the climate." He further observes, "From every circumstance, proof may be obtained that mankind are not composed of species essentially different from each other; that on the contrary there was originally but one species of men. At Cochin, on the coast of Malabar, is a colony of Jews, originally a fair people from Palestine, who have preserved themselves unmixed from the people among whom they live, yet from the effect of climate they have become as dark as the Malabarians, who are nearly as black as the negroes of Guinea." "The subsisting varieties of the human race are occasioned by several physiological causes, not only climate, but descent, and deviations of character and habit. And in addition to the influence of physiological incidents in producing such variety are others, to which domestication in the lower animals may be considered the correlative,—namely, those which result from habitual and immediate emotions, from excitements of the animal spirits, and from attachment and confidence, such, principally, as the two emotions of love and hate, and all the variety of feelings which they involve."

Asia north of the Taurus, and probably America, were peopled by his posterity; while the resemblance between the people on the opposite sides of the passage that divides the two continents is such as to show their common origin."

It is maintained by Moreri, and believed by some other historians and antiquarians, but is supported by no certain evidence, that America was known to the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians,* if not to the oriental nations of China, Japan, and Palestine.

From the great antiquity and the local situation, as well as from the peculiarity of a stone aqueduct which passes under the principal building of some recently discovered ruins near Guatimala, designated the Palencian City, it is inferred that the people in this part of South America bore some analogy to and had intercourse with the Romans.†

The earliest claim to the honour of discovering this important portion of the globe, as urged by Snorro Sturlonides, in the "Chronicle of Olaus," published in Stockholm in 1697, was by the Norwegians or Northmen, who are supposed to have penetrated to Hudson's Bay, and subsequently to the eastern coast.‡ Little doubt appears but that Greenland was discovered and peopled from Iceland and Norway nearly one thousand years ago, and was subsequently invaded by a tribe of the Esquimaux

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* It is highly probable that America was peopled by the Carthaginians, who were situate on the north-west coast of Africa, and possessed the Canary and Cape Verde Islands, in the Atlantic Ocean; and as the Carthaginian ships carried sometimes a thousand people, and were probably crowded with men, women, and children when they sent colonies to those islands, as ours when we send to the plantations, it is very natural to expect that some of them should miss those islands, and be driven to the west beyond their intended port; and if this ever happened they must of necessity be carried to America, which is situated but three weeks' sail to the windward of the Canary or Cape Verde Islands; from whence it was impossible for them to return to the eastern continent, the trade-winds being always opposite to them, which is the reason we never heard anything of that part of the world until we had the use of the compass, and the art of navigation was improved, whereby the way was found out of sailing into the higher latitudes, out of the way of the trade-winds, in order to return to the eastern continent.—*Salmon's Geogra Gram.*, p. 550.

† See Description of the Ruins of an ancient City discovered near Palenque, in the kingdom of Guatimala, in Spanish America, translated from the original manuscript report of Captain Don Antonio Del Rio; followed by Teatro Critico Americano; or, A Critical Investigation and Researches into the History of the Americans. by Dr. Paul Felix Cabrera, of the city of New Guatimala. 4to., London, 1822.

‡ Some authors have asserted, though apparently without any reasonable ground, that America was discovered by a native of Nuremberg as early as 1483.

of Labrador, who reached Greenland in boats through Davis's Straits: from these the present race of Greenlanders are descended, a fact that seems to be established by Scandinavian history.* Other authorities state that Thorwold Ericsson, an Icelander, sailed from Ericsford in Greenland on a voyage of exploration to a country called Vinland, from the vines with which it abounded; and that America had been previously discovered by one Biarni Heriulfson, who, in a voyage from Iceland to Greenland, had been driven a great many days' sail from the usual course to the south-west as far as Cape Cod, or to Cross Cape, near Plymouth, the landing place of the Pilgrim Fathers.

The Welsh bards and historians assert a claim both to the discovery and partial colonization of America by Madoc Owain Gwynedd, a Welsh prince, in the eleventh or twelfth century, three hundred years before the expedition of Columbus, as stated by Powell and other antiquaries, and this legend furnishes the theme of one of Mr. Southey's most finished and attractive poems. Hakluyt also says that America was discovered by the Welsh about the year 1170, and that a colony was planted there by Madoc, the son of Owain Gwynedd. Meredeth Ap Reece, a Cambrian bard, who died in the year 1477, that is, fifteen years before the date of modern discovery, composed an ode in his native language on the subject of this expedition, of which ode the following is an extract:—

"Madoc Wyf, Mwyedic Weedd
I awn genou, Owyn Guyedd
Ni frinnum dic, fy enaid eedd
Na d mawr, nid y moreedd."

Sir Morgan Jones, who was chaplain to General Bennett in Virginia, about the year 1660 published an account of his having discovered a tribe of Indians near Cape Atros, whose origin he conceived to be Welsh; and Owen, in his "British Remains," supposes that their migration happened near the time of William Rufus, or of Henry the First; while a Mr. Isaac Steward and a Mr. John Evans, natives of Wales, affirm that they visited the red-haired, fair-complexioned Indians, who inhabited a beautiful country on the west side of the Missouri,

* It is supposed that the narratives of the voyages of the ancient Scandinavians to America may still prove of service in removing the veil which to this day hangs over the origin of the nations inhabiting the regions of the New World.

and conversed with them in the Welsh language. Manuscripts have also been found among them in the Greek character, but said to be the Welsh Bible.

At the same time it is remarkable that about the year 1815 two gold coins were dug up in Kentucky, one of Antonius and the other of Faustina, while in other parts have been found some bearing the impress of Augustus, together with inscriptions, Eagles, and other symbols of Imperial Rome, and which some antiquarians have supposed must have been carried thither by Madoc and his followers.

Dr. Cotton Mather, of New England, in his "Magnalia," quotes an author who says, "If we may credit any records besides the Scriptures, I know it might be said and proved well, that this New World was known and partly inhabited by Britons or Saxons from England three or four hundred years before the Spaniards came thither, which assertion is demonstrated from the discourses between the Mexicans and Spaniards, and the popish relics and British terms found among them, as well as from undoubted passages in the British Annals."*

The native country of Madoc being distracted with disputes as to the regular succession to the crown, he is said to have embarked in thirteen ships, with about three hundred followers, and settled near the Missouri. These emigrants are said to have landed at the mouth of the Mississippi, where they built a town, and afterwards to have gradually moved onward to their present territory.

A third claim to the distinction of having discovered this continent at an earlier date than the first voyage of Columbus, and to intelligence derived from which both the latter and Magellan are supposed to have been much indebted, is asserted in behalf of Martin Benaim, a German, who, after an expedition to Africa, is said by Doppelmayor, in his work upon the Lives of the Mathematicians of Nuremberg, to have sailed westward, and settled in the Azores.

The only authentic history of the discovery of the New World is that of its southern portion, in connection with the West India Islands, being sighted on the 8th of October, 1492, by Christopher Columbus, and other parts successively, within a short period,

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* Journal of a Two Months' Residence among the Frontier Inhabitants of Pennsylvania, by the Rev C. Beatty, A.M. Also a tract entitled, The Welsh Indian, by the Rev. Dr. Burder.

by Ponce De Leon, Sebastian Cabot, and Amerigo Vespucci. From the last of these, with no small injustice both to Columbus and Cabot, the whole continent, as is well known, received its designation. John Cabot and his son Sebastian, in the service of Henry VII. of England, discovered North America in 1497, five years after Columbus had planted the royal standard of Spain on the southern islands and continent. They also explored the eastern coast from Newfoundland to Florida.

From all the circumstances it will appear, therefore, that if Columbus was not absolutely the first European who landed on American soil, he was the first real discoverer, since his precursors were either driven thither by adverse winds, or were led to it by accident.

The early history also of the inhabitants of this great division of the globe is involved in great obscurity.

All nations preserve traces of their origin, having received a certain impress at the outset both from the men and circumstances of each respective country or tribe which should determine the character of their condition and origin. The brightest intellects, therefore, have ever been ready to seize upon every point of advantage; unfettered individual activity, left free to develop itself in every direction where it was needed, has been brought into contact with systems of traditionary rules; and investigations have been pursued to the utmost limit,—yet all hitherto without any satisfactory result in determining the ethnology of the first inhabitants of the American continent.

Traditions, monuments, and other circumstances, seem to indicate a double immigration: one from the Aleutian Islands,* another from more southern regions,—a tract which, as is supposed, once occupied the present place of the Atlantic Ocean—the fabled "Atlantis," described by Plato in his "Timæus," as also by Ælian in his "History of Various Things,"† and Seneca in his "Media." The Thule spoken of by Seneca is by some supposed to be Iceland, or a part of Greenland, *i.e.*, the northern parts of America, and Tiphys is considered to have been the pilot to the celebrated Argonautic expedition.‡

The island of Atlantis is described by Plato as having been of vast extent and population, but swallowed up or absorbed

* The Aleutian Islands are a chain extending from Asia to North America to the southward of Behring's Strait.

† Ælian, lib. iii. cap. 8.

‡ Medea of Seneca, B.C. 1263. A.M. 2741.

by an earthquake. He writes on the authority of Solon, who received his information from an Egyptian priest. This priest affirmed it as a prevalent tradition "that there was formerly an island at the entrance of the ocean where the pillars of Hercules now stand; this island was larger than all Lybia and Asia, and from it was an easy passage to many other islands, and from these islands to all that continent which was opposite and next to the true sea; for that land which surrounded the sea called Pelagos might justly be called a continent. In after times there happened a dreadful earthquake and an inundation of water, which continued for the space of a whole day and night; and this island, Atlantis, being covered and overwhelmed by water, sunk beneath the ocean and disappeared."* Many Hindoo legends also refer to the circumstance, and Whitehurst quotes in proof the geology of the coasts of Ireland. Some suppose that the Canaries are fragments of that extensive island—the sea is said to be shallow in that vicinity. Pliny mentions traditions of the irruptions of the Atlantic into the basin of the Mediterranean.

"The probability is," says the Abbe Clavigero, in his elaborate treatise on the subject, "that the quadrupeds, as well as men, &c., of America, passed thither by land; and that the two continents were formerly united, their separation being caused by earthquakes and subterranean phenomena."

Passages which seem to favour this idea are to be found both in sacred and profane history. In Gen. x. 25, and its parallel 1 Chron. i. 19, we are informed that the name of one of Heber's sons was called Peleg, because in his days the earth *(nĕpĕlĕgah) divided.* Thus Gen. ix. 19: "These are three sons of Noah, and of them was the whole earth overspread" *(napetsa);* x. 5: "By these were the isles of the Gentiles *divided (nĕpĕrĕdū)* in their lands, every one after his tongue, after their families, in their nations;" also verses 18 and 32, and chap. xi. 9: "From thence (Babel) did the Lord *scatter them abroad (epitsĕm)* upon the face of all the earth."

Bengel, the Biblical critic, in his "Ordo Temporum," makes the following observation: "Peleg was named from the division of the earth (which happened in those days). The earth after the deluge was divided by degrees—by a genealogical and politi-

* See History of America, from the first discovery thereof, with the best Accounts the People could give of their Antiquities, collected from original relations sent to the kings of Spain, translated from the Spanish by Captain John Stevens.

cal division; which is expressed by the words *(nĕpĕtsĕ)* and *(nĕpĕrĕdŭ)*; but a very different kind of division is meant by the word *nĕpĕlĕgah*,—viz., a physical and geographical division which happened at once, and which was so remarkable, and of such extent, as suitably to answer the naming of the patriarch therefrom. By this word *Peleg*, that kind of division is principally denoted which is applicable to land and water; whence, in the Hebrew tongue, *Pĕlĕg* signifies a river, and in the Greek, Πελαγος *(Pelagos)*, the sea. And Pelagus has the same import in Latin; thus a part of the Mediterranean, or what was called anciently the Ægean Sea, has its appellation Archi-pelago. Here, then, there appears to be a reference to continents—that the earth split or divided asunder, *i.e.*, superficially for some considerable extent, and thus opened a fresh way, a Peleg or Pelagus, for the waters of the sea."

That both men and quadrupeds passed over from the Asiatic continent on land, is the opinion also of Acosta, Grotius, Buffon, Robertson, and other great and learned men, who have made the subject one of minute and earnest investigation; and it is remarkable that this geographical conjecture is not only verified by the discoveries of Captain Cook, Anson, and other celebrated navigators of more recent times, but it is also a well-known Indian tradition that the narrow strait which separates the north-west part of America from the eastern part of Asia was once fordable at low water; while some late travellers and voyagers assert that the Indians are now in the habit of passing to and from each continent in their canoes. Hence the language of a late popular writer: "The Indians of the present day cross at Behring's Straits in their canoes, and this may have been done in former days as well as now." This is an assertion by no means improbable, as the distance across the strait is only forty miles, or thirteen leagues, being in latitude 66° north, and longitude 170° west. "The straits which divide North America from Tartary," says another authority, "are so narrow as to admit an easy passage from one continent to another, and during a great part of the year it may be crossed on the ice."

A third hypothesis has been suggested, which would people America from that branch of the Huns who migrated to the north-east in or about the year 100 of the christian era; while an Anglo-American philosopher, M. M. Noah, who is of Jewish extraction, has adduced many ingenious and plausible reasons

for believing that at least the greatest portion of the original inhabitants of the New World may be descendants of the lost tribes of Israel, whom he supposes to have crossed over from Asia through Behring's Straits, the channel, as already noted, which separates America from Asia, and connects the Pacific and Arctic oceans,—these tribes at length spreading themselves throughout America, and in process of time degenerating into savages and idolaters.

Of the latter opinion were also the celebrated William Penn the founder of Pennsylvania, President Edwards, and others who had the best opportunities of judging.

After tracing the similarity of the dialect which he had acquired of one of the tribes to the Hebrew language, William Penn adds, "For their origin, I am ready to believe them of the Jewish race. I mean of the stock of the ten tribes, and that for the following reasons. First, that they (meaning the Israelites, at their last dispersion) were to go to a land not planted or sown, which Asia and Africa were, if not Europe; while their passage to America was not impossible in itself, as the easternmost parts of Asia and the westernmost parts of America are nearly contiguous. In the second place, I find them of the like countenances, and their children of so lively a resemblance, that a man may think himself in Duke Place or Bury Street in London. Thirdly, they reckon by moons,—they offer their first-fruits,—they have a kind of feast of tabernacles, —they are said to lay their altar upon twelve stones,—together with the facts of their mourning a year,—customs of women,—with many other things that do not now occur to me."*

"From the ceremonial observances and civil government of the Indians," says a late writer, "added to several other striking coincidents, it is the opinion of M. M. Noah, and others of Jewish descent, that the aborigines of North America are the descendants of the ten lost tribes, who, instead of going into the east, for fear of the Egyptians, bent their course in a north-west direction, which brought them within a few leagues of the American continent, and which they finally reached through Behring's Straits."

Thus says Mrs. Simon, an authoress of Jewish origin: "Those who are most conversant with the public and private economy of the Indians, are strongly of opinion that they are lineal

* Clarkson's Life of Penn, vol. i., pp. 384, 397.

descendants of the Israelites, and my own researches go far to confirm the same belief."*

It must, however, be admitted, in justice to any enquiry as to the accuracy of this opinion, that the hieroglyphical delineations and rude symbolical registers found even among the Indians of Mexico, cannot be compared with the consecutive grammatical writings of the Hebrews, which display the advanced state of intellectual culture and social organization of a country and portion of the globe in which the earliest traces of civilized man are to be found. And at the same time the inscriptions of the Mexicans, so far as they have been deciphered, seem to indicate a more recent era.

It may be said, indeed, of the Indians in general, that so different are they from the ancient Israelites, that they have few or no religious ideas: their thoughts are wholly engrossed with the things of earth: the world of ideas,—the spiritual world,—seems closed against them: their whole philosophy and religion are reducible to a code of social morals, limited to the expression of those principles of human conscience without the observance of which society would be impossible.

The original form of religious worship, as practised by the Indians in general, is known to have resembled closely in its main features that which prevailed among most Asiatic nations at the dawn of authentic history. It consisted in doing homage to the primary elements of fire, air, water, earth, and space, with the heavenly bodies and aerial beings,—a sort of Sabaism, in which fire is the principal object of deification, and of which element the firmament and sun were regarded as subordinate manifestations, as may be seen in the recently found Rigveda of the Hindus. At the same time there is an affinity between these peoples, in temperament and intellect, in habits, manners, and social state. The American Indian is proverbially melancholic, with a mind moderate in range, but ingenious, inventive, full of sagacity for the useful arts and conveniences of life, but incompetent to generalize their application; leading a roaming though not nomadic life, with a patriarchal form of society; united together as a people by compulsive ties imposed by kindred and by nature.

Many travellers trace a similarity between the American natives and the Tartars, both in language and physiognomy,

* Mrs. Simon's Hope of Israel, pp. 33, 34.

with coincidences of custom, and of mythological legends; while they practise similar superstitions, and represent that they were driven from their original country by the "rising of the waters."*

Mr. Ranking, in his "Historical Researches," maintains that the conquest of Peru, Mexico, Bogota, and Natchez, in the thirteenth century, was made by the Mongols. He considers it highly probable that a portion of the Asiatic troops, despatched by the Mongul Emperor of China, Shi-tsu, for the subjugation of Japan, had been carried across the Pacific Ocean by the tremendous storm which scattered and destroyed that vast armament, and that the few who were spared from the fury of the tempest had arrived in Peru, having at their head the commander of the expedition, Mooko, whom Mr. Ranking recognises in the first Inca Mango.† And the same author, in his "Wars and Sports of the Mongols and Romans," has endeavoured to prove, what has been controverted, however, by Professor Buckland, that no bones of any fossil have been found, except in situations in which it is probable they were placed by the hands of men; and as will be hereafter proved, the bones of the Asiatic elephant have been discovered in the New World, which gives additional probability to the hypothesis that this continent was conquered or invaded either by Romans or Mongols.

Baron Humboldt remarks, and his authority will be regarded as unexceptionable, that amongst all the tribes of America, South as well as North, many traits of Asiatic manners and usages are apparent. He even thought he could trace the Chinese language in that of Mexico,—a supposition that seems to be sustained by the narration of the Chinese historian, Li-yen, who lived in the early part of the seventh century. He also found in the possession of the Indians on the Amazon, engraved green stones, exactly resembling the Ethiopian and Babylonian, or Sabean signets, described by Mr. Landseer as cylindrical, engraved in intaglio on jasper, chalcedony, jade, or onyx stone, about one or two inches long, and half an inch in diameter. They were used as seals in Ethiopia, Chaldea, Arabia, and other nations of western Asia. They were found also in the ruins of Babylon and Nineveh, and are both mystical and curious.

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* De Guignes.
† Amer. Eclec. Recorder.

Stones similarly engraved were used among the Romans; and the signet of Augustus Cæsar exhibited the sign of Capricorn, under which he was born.

In other parts of America have been discovered hieroglyphical delineations similar to those inscribed on the tombs and temples of Egypt. But what is still more remarkable is, the zodiac of the Mexicans being identical with that of the ancient Egyptians.

On the fragments of walls and columns recovered from ruins in Central America or Mexico, are depicted countenances and head-dresses which resemble those of the Egyptian statues. One with a sphynx-like countenance has a head-dress exactly similar to that of the priest of Isis.

Indications of a common origin have been traced between the aboriginal civilization of South America and that of the Toltecs and the Olmecs, as well as Aztecs or ancient Mexicans, and other nations of America. It cannot fail to be a remarkable circumstance, however, if correct, that the Indians found within the United States and territories, and throughout the whole of the continent ranging from the Mississippi towards the Polar region, differ from those of Mexico and the southern part of the continent, as also from pagan nations generally, in that they have no idols of any form, but acknowledge and profess to worship the "Great Spirit."*

Fragments of idols have been found in Tennessee, and in the whole of the valley whose waters flow into the Gulf of Mexico, that are almost identical with some of the Mexican idols; and obsidian has been found in the mounds near Lake Ontario, which is a strong indication of Mexican origin, as there is no obsidian in the United States.

Some affinities are traced between the Cherokee and Aztec dialects, and there are strong physical and other points of resemblance between the Cherokees and Mexicans, the former of whom had been settled, long before America was discovered, in warm sheltered valleys that debouched upon rivers emptying themselves into the Gulf of Mexico.

The more the Indians are studied, it is said on high authority, the more does everything about them appear to be eastern,—their language, religion, calendars, architecture, &c.† Their

* This assertion, made on the authority of Catlin and others, is declared incorrect by Professor Müller, in his History, lately published, of the Primitive Religions of America.

† Man and his Migrations, by Dr. Latham.

worship of fire in the open air, and avoiding the use of temples, is precisely that of Zoroaster, as is also their leading doctrine of two spirits, good and evil, ruling the world; and the allegory of the egg of Ormudz has been found on an earthwork on the top of the hill in Adam's County, Ohio. It represents the coil of the serpent the egg produced, and is 700 feet long; but it is thought it would reach, if the coil were lengthened out, 1,000 feet. The jaws of the serpent are represented as widely distended as if in the act of swallowing. In the interstice is an oval or egg-shaped mound. This repetition of a symbol is considered a further proof of eastern derivation, while it is stated on the same authority, that the wrong-headedness and persistence of idea in the Indians entirely resemble the oriental branches of the great Semitic family.* But the Kamskadale, the Koriak, the Aino-Japanese, and the Korean or semi-Chinese, are the Asiatic languages which those spoken by the Indian tribes most remarkably resemble.†

The shape of this continent has induced some geologists to infer that America and Africa were once united,—the projecting part of the latter fitting exactly to the Gulf of Mexico, and the prominent part of South America being about the size and shape to fill the Gulf of Guinea. Antonio de Herera, also, in his "Decad," seems to favour the idea that the Americans were of the posterity of Ham; representing that they went out of Africa,—the earth being *(năpĕlĕgah)* divided or split asunder in the days of Peleg,—to that part of America which now looks toward Africa.‡ But in opposition to such an hypothesis, it is remarkable that no trace has been found among the aboriginal inhabitants of real African origin.

"The over-valuation of the Esquimaux peculiarities," says Dr. Latham, to which he might have added some philological difficulties, "is the great obstacle in American ethnology. When these are cut down to their due level, the connection between America and Asia is neither more nor less than one of the clearest we have. It is certainly clearer than the junction of Africa with north-western Asia; not more obscure than that between the Oceanica and the transgangetic peninsula; and

* *Vide* Information respecting the condition and prospects of the Indian tribes of the United States, collected and prepared under the Bureau of Indian affairs, per Act of Congress. Also Report of the United States Exploring Expedition.

† Man and his Migrations, by Dr Latham, vol. i., p. 185.

‡ Herera Decad, i., book ix., chap. ii.

incalculably less mysterious than that which joins Asia to Europe."*

The whole original native population, except the Esquimaux and people of Nootka Sound, who inhabit the coast of the North Atlantic Ocean to the south of Behring's Straits, and who appear both in stature, physical conformation, and language, to resemble the inhabitants of Lapland and the northern borders of Asia, of the Samoide family, to which we have already referred, are generally, if not universally, supposed to have sprung from one and the same race; agreeing in their general appearance, manners, and usages, along the whole line of coast, from the Straits of Magellan to Hudson's Bay.

As some evidence of the identity in stock of the original inhabitants of both divisions of the continent, the Natchez Indians, familiar to the novelist from the romances of Chateaubriand, are known to the ethnologist as pre-eminent amongst the Indians of the Mississippi for their Mexican characteristics: they flattened the head,—worshipped the sun,—kept up an undying fire,—recognised a system of caste,—and sacrificed human victims.

Some special distinctions obtain among the different tribes, as it is natural to suppose; whilst they are found, also, in various stages of society, from the lowest savage state to that of a half-civilized people; but still the above description is so generally applicable as to sanction the opinion, that the far greater part of the native tribes of both Americas have had but one common origin, and that that origin is Asiatic.

Even the most northerly Indians, those of the Rocky Mountains (the Strong Bows and the Dog Ribs), have a tradition that they originally came from the westward; from a level country, where there was no water,—a country producing trees and fruits now unknown to them; and that among the strange animals altogether different from those of the country they now inhabit, there was one whose visage bore a striking resemblance to the human face (supposed to be the ourang outang); and that they were driven from that land by a flood, and, proceeding northerly, came to a strait which they crossed on a raft, which strait or passage has since been frozen over and become impassable.

As the result of frequent and careful investigation by men of high character for learning and research, it is now the general

* Man and his Migrations, vol. i., pp. 184-5.

and may be considered the established opinion that they are of the Mongolian race, from the northern part or central table land of Asia, the inhabitants of which they resemble in their roving, patriarchal mode of life, as well as in the physical characteristics of that peculiar family.

But while the same style of features, the same physical form, and the same habits and pursuits of life, characterise the inhabitants in both divisions of this vast continent, notwithstanding the diversities of language, which suggest a difference also of moral condition as well as in the stock from whence they sprung, it is not a little singular that, though the North American Indians are by so many, from their physical conformation, classed with the Mongolians, they are generally said to differ in all these respects, as also in intellectual character, from every other variety of the human race. At the same time it may be said, that the general agreement which exists among themselves is considered as even more remarkable than their disagreement from the other branches of the great family of man.

"Notwithstanding a state of separation which makes every inhabitant of the wild a foe, except a being of the same tribe, —notwithstanding the little fusion which occurs among their families, so similar are their social circumstances, so uniform the action of external nature upon their condition, so unvaried the arts of life among them, that they preserve the same aspect through the whole continent; and variety of temperature, which impresses a diversity of character on so many of the objects of nature, is less powerful in producing differences among them than their common habits and pursuits in moulding them to the same form and feature."

> "How poor, how rich, how abject, how august,
> How complicate, how wonderful, is man!"

One species thus admirably varied,—of one understanding thus variously modified,—and of one organization assuming appearances so diverse!

CHAPTER II.

NATURAL DIVISIONS AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES.—Chief towns. Characteristic features of the country. Mountains, prairies, lakes, rivers, springs, islands. Past and present general boundaries and extent. Original number of States. Comparison with other nations. Situation of its frontier coast in regard to Europe.

The attention of the reader is now more especially called to that part of the continent comprehending the United States, and to this chiefly in its north-eastern, middle, and southern grand political divisions.

The American government, *i.e.*, that of the United States, exercises dominion over a country which, perhaps, at the present moment, that of England only excepted, is more extensive, and will support more inhabitants, than that of any nation upon the earth. "From the Atlantic on the east to the Pacific on the west, from the Lake countries on the north to the Gulf of Mexico on the south,—her shores thus washed by the great ocean,—her lakes, and seas, and rivers the most majestic that water the earth,—her commerce whitening every sea,—her railroads and canals, like great arteries, intersecting her whole surface, carrying life and activity to the remotest corner, and whose more densely populated surface is overspread with a network of magnetic wires,—this colossal empire, embracing every character of soil and every degree of climate, has extended within the last half century, and filled the untrodden forest, the uninhabited plain, and the bleak hills with commerce, increasing towns, and a numerous population."* The sun is four hours in its passage from the time when it first shines on the eastern shores of Maine till it strikes the waters of the Pacific, and it is about four months in passing through the degrees of latitude of the United States, in its northern and southern declination embracing six varieties of climate.

As already indicated, the United States may be distributed into four grand political divisions,—eastern, middle, southern, and western.

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* Harper's Magazine.

The eastern, or New England States, comprehend those situated to the east of Hudson's River, viz., Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

The middle States comprise New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

The southern States include Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, the Floridas, Mississippi, Louisiana, and the district of Columbia. And now that the newly-acquired States and territories of Texas, New Mexico, California, and others, are added to this section of the Union, it comprises the whole region that extends from the Susquehana to the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico.

The western States and organized territories comprise Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, Arkansas, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Oregon.

The principal or most important towns in the Union are New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans; but the capital is Washington. All these are situated on the sea-coast, or on the banks of navigable rivers. Among the most considerable cities or towns of the western States, are Detroit in Michigan, Chicago in Illinois near the head of Lake Michigan, Milwaukee in Wisconsin, St. Louis in Missouri, and Cincinnati and Cleveland in Ohio.

The characteristic features of the entire continent are principally its mountains, prairies, lakes, and rivers.

The chief mountain ranges or systems, are the Rocky or Stony Mountains, in the north-western part of the continent, regarded as a continuation of the Andes of Chili and Peru, or the northerly prolongation of the Mexican Central Chain; and the Alleghany or Appellachian series in the eastern. The latter chain crosses the United States from east to west—from Maine to Georgia—extending two or three, or, according to some authorities, four thousand miles in length; rising to their highest altitude in Virginia; their breadth varying from fifty to one hundred and twenty miles. The chain of the Rocky Mountains is nearly nine thousand miles in length, and from one to three hundred in width. This is the longest range of mountains in the world, extending along the whole of the American continent, from the southern shores of Patagonia to the borders of the icy sea. Some of the ridges of that part of the chain distinguished by the name of the Rocky Mountains, are thirteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. Mount Elias, in the

Russian territory, which may be regarded also as a part of the same series, called the Toplan ridge, stretching to the northward towards Nootka Sound, is from sixteen to seventeen thousand feet in height; and one peak, called the Great White Mountain, between the rivers Platte and Arkansas, is described by Captain Pike as attaining an elevation of eighteen thousand feet.

Among the second and third classes of mountains, and which form the separate ranges of the Alleghanies, are the Black Mountains, the White, the Blue, the Green, the Catskill, the Cumberland, and the Highlands of the Hudson. The highest of these, to the eastward, is Mount Washington,* in New Hampshire, which is upwards of six thousand feet above the sea; and the Black ridge, said to be the most elevated point eastward of the Mississippi, is nearly seven thousand feet high.† The Blue ridge of the Alleghanies rises in Virginia.

Not only are the principal mountains of such considerable altitude, but vast ridges of them follow each other in succession, rising at irregular distances in lofty cones, or swelling up in undulating curves, rounded gracefully at the summit,—the whole series, Mount Washington and some others of the same craggy sterile character excepted, covered with dense forests of pine and firs, together with vast varieties both of trees, shrubs, and moss. There are no such isolated mountains in the United States as are so common in Jamaica and other islands of the West Indies; and the lower hills preserve an almost unvarying regularity of form, rounded on their summits, indicative of their geological formation,‡ and following each other like massive rollers, or huge waves of the sea.

The prairies of America are somewhat similar to the steppes of Asia, or those of southern Russia, and resemble in some of their features the moor-heaths of Europe, only in some districts vastly more extended, and with different degrees of barrenness and fertility,—illimitable, pathless wildernesses or gardens of the desert. They have been sometimes compared to the pampas and llanos of South America, but resemble them as little as the

* This is the highest of the White Mountain ridge, the highest elevations of which are severally named, Washington, Franklin, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe. They are covered with snow ten months of the year, and are seen from a great distance at sea.

† The Black Mountain is in North Carolina; the Green in Vermont.

‡ Decomposing sandstone.

Sahara of Africa. They approach in character most nearly to the wide steppes which surround the Lake of Aral, and extend to the Caspian Sea and the Ural Mountains; in some parts extremely level, in others slightly undulating, and with rich and luxuriant grass, on which feed countless herds of wild cattle. They may be said, perhaps, more properly to resemble the vast expanse of ocean, bounded by the horizon; differing materially both from the jungles of India and the deserts of Africa. They sometimes extend for hundreds of miles of dead level, without a tree or a stone; but in parts are covered during summer with thistles five or six feet in height. They are chiefly found to the westward, between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains; and from their geological structure, shells and other fossils, and geological causes in general, are supposed to be parts of the ancient floor of the ocean,—pointing to a time when man was not, but when the Titans of primeval nature—megatheriums, mastodons, and ichthyosaurians—rose up from the waters and wandered alone over the earth. The banks of the rivers that sometimes occur in their vicinity, are covered with luxuriant vegetation. Long grass and low underwood, of endless variety and form, cover the almost interminable plain. Many parts of the surface are undulating, like the enamelled meadows of the Nile after its periodical inundations, sprinkled with brilliant flowers, and matted over with a profusion of blossoming creepers (convolvuli), and sometimes dotted with stunted trees,—the haunts of herds of wild horses,* deer, bisons, and other tenants of the wilderness.

The vegetation of these boundless plains, indeed, is in parts peculiarly attractive. Millions of flowers present themselves on all sides. Everywhere the rose is met with, and reminds one of cultivated gardens and civilization. It is scattered over the prairies in small bouquets, and when glittering in the dews, and waving in the pleasant breeze of the early morning, is the most beautiful of prairie flowers. The artimesia, or prairie sage, glitters like silver as the southern wind turns up its leaves to the sun, and the wild thyme fills the air with fragrance, while the orb of day mirrors his own image in the ocean of sunflowers around.

Bryant, in his inimitable poem, "The Prairies," has painted, as words can seldom paint, the illimitable western fields in their

* No buffalo has ranged the prairies south of the Mississippi since 1820.

sun bright, solitary beauty and grandeur. Billows! masses of verdure and flowers waving in the wind! Above these, the vast scene paradisaic, splendid and rich, but silent and desolate as a desert.

> "Lo! they stretch,
> In airy undulations, far away,
> As if the ocean in his gentlest swell
> Stood still, with all his rounded billows fixed
> And motionless for ever. Motionless?
> No—they are all unchained again. The clouds
> Sweep over with their shadows, and, beneath,
> The surface rolls and fluctuates to the eye;
> Dark hollows seem to glide along and chase
> The sunny ridges."

No prospect can be more awfully solitary than is presented by these great illimitable western wastes. No habitation of man appears in view,—no human beings,—no herds grazing on the green plains, and recalling domestic associations,—no song of birds to cheer the lone wayfarer,—nothing except heaven and the flower-strewn earth. A western prairie, in a word, presents one of those unbounded lonely prospects, where the imagination of a stranger is not less oppressed than surprised by the vastness and novelty of the spectacle. The mind distressed, seeking on every side in vain for an object on which to repose, finds only a solitude that saddens, an immensity that confounds.

These vast savannas, not to mention Texas, where they occur on their grandest scale, are more extensive in Indiana, Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana, or generally to the north of the Ohio and west of the Mississippi, and may be said to comprise the whole state of Illinois.

When the grass of the prairie has been dried and withered by long drought and the action of a summer's sun, it not unfrequently ignites, sometimes as is supposed spontaneously, and a sea of flame is swept by the wind as far as the eye can reach, spreading more swiftly than the fleetest wild horse, or bison, or deer, or any other living animal can fly before it. Roaring and hissing the fire-flood rolls on, swallowing up everything in its course, and leaving behind it a wide path of blackness and desolation. The scene is represented as one of the sublimest that can be imagined. In such cases, the only resort of the traveller or hunter, in order to escape the general destruction, is to tear up and fire the grass around him, thereby creating a counter flame, which burning outwards proves an expedient that seldom fails in its intended effect.

The principal lakes of the United States, and which are universally allowed to constitute one of their most prominent physical features, are those of Champlain, between the States of New York and Vermont, and Lake Georgia, of surpassing natural beauty and magnificence, in the eastern part of the same named State; with Michigan, Erie, the Great Salt Lake, of Mormon celebrity, and others of greater or less magnitude, equally distinguished for their beauty and aquatic wealth. Lake Superior, which, with Huron, Erie, and Ontario, may be said partly to belong to the United States, is said to be the largest body of fresh water in the world, receiving the currents of forty rivers, and having a surface of thirty-five thousand square miles.* Its length is four hundred and ten, its greatest breadth one hundred and twenty, and its circumference from twelve to fifteen hundred miles. The five lakes—Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario—cover an area of ninety-two thousand square miles.

Almost all the rivers, of which there are three groups or classes, arise from various ridges and ravines of the Alleghanies and Rocky Mountains, flowing respectively into the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

The most extensive and important in this division of the continent, are the Mississippi, Missouri, and its principal tributaries, with the Ohio, Connecticut, Delaware, Chesapeak, and Hudson: these are the great arterial branches of the Union, by which commerce and civilization have been so astonishingly urged through her mighty frame.

Added to these, are numerous bays, capes, cataracts or falls, and mineral waters, together with other divisions and peculiarities too well known to the general reader to require minute detail.

The United States have several islands along their coasts; the chief of which are Long and Staten islands, near New York; and Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket, in the vicinity of New England.

The United States, before the annexation of Texas, New Mexico, and California, were bounded north by British America, the line extending along the St. Lawrence through the lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, to the north-west point of

* It has lately been asserted that Lake Michigan contains a greater body of fresh water than Lake Superior.

the Lake of the Woods in north latitude 49° 37′, and thence onward to Vancouver's Island in the Pacific; east by the British provinces of New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; south and south-west by the Gulf of Mexico, along the Sabine River to latitude 32° and the United Mexican States; and north-west by the Pacific. They have been divided by some geographers into the civilized and uncivilized; that portion of the country on the right hand, advancing up the river Mississippi from New Orleans, inhabited by Europeans and their descendants; and that on the left, between the branches of the Missouri and the Mississippi, or rather to the eastward of Red River and Marmento northward towards the source of the Rio Grande, possessed or partially occupied by the confederated States of various tribes of Indians.

It now includes Oregon, Texas, New Mexico, and California; and is, therefore, bounded on the south and south-west entirely by the Pacific Ocean, north-west by Russian America, and south-east by the Atlantic. The boundary line extending round the United States before these recently acquired territories was 9,500 miles, of which 3,650 were sea coast. The whole surface, as claimed by Congress, including the territory of the Oregon, or the entire region of country lying on the Pacific, and embraced within the forty-second and fifty-fourth degrees of north latitude, occupies about 2,100,000 square miles, and ranges from north to south through 29 degrees of latitude, and 58 degrees of longitude, or nearly 3,000 miles long by 2,000 wide. The whole comprises an area of between three and four millions of square miles.

The geographical centre of the United States is in the Indian territory, nearly one hundred and fifty miles west of Missouri, the central State of the Union.

The original thirteen States embraced but a little more than one-tenth of the present territory,—their area being not much larger than that of Oregon; and at the period of the revolution they contained but one-eighth of the present population. The frontier line has an extent of 10,000 miles, and a line drawn from the north-west to the south-east would measure 3,200 miles. The total square mileage of the territory of the United States, as ascertained by the last census, is stated at 3,306,865, or more than one-third the surface of the entire North American continent. According to the calculations of the coast survey, the total main shore line of the United States, exclusive of bays,

sounds, islands, &c., is 12,600 statute miles, of which 6,861 miles are on the Atlantic, 2,281 on the Pacific, and 3,467 on the Gulf. If the bays, sounds, &c., be included, together with rivers entered under the head of tide-waters, the total shore line will equal 33,069 miles. The Encyclopædia Americana, however, at this date, reduced the real extent of available surface to a little less than 1,000,000 square miles, not calculating the territories retained by the Indian tribes on the north-western frontier. But whichever calculation may prove the most correct, America contains a geographical area which, in point of territorial extent, is more than Attila ever ruled, or Tamerlane the Tartar ever conquered;—is equal, Russia excepted, to all Europe: without the addition of the vast colonial possessions of England, more than six times as extensive as Great Britain and France, and equal to the whole of China and Hindostan;—embracing, also, the finest portion of the globe—the seat of the choicest fertility, beauty, and wealth of the whole earth.

California, on its vast disclosures of gold, became at once a source of greatly augmented wealth and power. In compliment to this new State, and which is an evidence of its estimated value to the Union, it was admitted at once into the number of confederated States, though deficient at the time of the requisite population,* and was presented with a magnificent and costly seal, which represents the Goddess Minerva as she sprung full grown from the brain of Jupiter,—thus representing the political birth of California without having gone through the probation of a territory.

Americans, like the ancient Romans in regard to their empire in the zenith of its prosperity, have a country of which they may well be proud, if their national vanity with respect to it be not altogether excusable.

It may convey a general idea of the situation of the north-eastern portion of this continent in regard to Europe, to remark, that New Britain lies nearly parallel with Great Britain; that Newfoundland, the Bay of St. Lawrence, and Cape Breton, are opposite to France; Nova Scotia and New England are on a parallel with the Bay of Biscay; and New York and Pennsylvania are opposite to Spain and Portugal.

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* A territory, before it can claim to be a State, must have at least a population of 35,000 souls.

CHAPTER III.

Early History after Discovery by Europeans.—When first colonized by Europeans, in what localities, and by what nations. The Pilgrim Fathers. Subsequent exclusive possession by the British. Progress in civilization. Rupture with the Mother country, and its causes. Determined conduct of the colonists. Results and termination of the war. Its influence on the national character. Present population. Its late and continued increase. Observations of Sir William Molesworth and Lord John Russell.

The history of the United States may be divided into three periods—the Colonial, Revolutionary, and Independent.

North America was first really settled in Virginia by Captain Christopher Newport, who arrived with one hundred and five colonists in the reign of James the First, and in the year 1607. After this sovereign the first township was named. The district was, however, first discovered by a subject of Great Britain, and claimed by the English monarch, Henry VII., in 1497; but, in deference to the claims of Pope Alexander VI., who had granted to the Spaniards all the territories more than one hundred leagues west of the Azores, no settlement was attempted before the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in honour of whom this particular district was designated Virginia. At James Town, which occupied a peninsula projecting from the northern shore of James River, may still be seen the ruins of the first Episcopal church in North America; and this, with its surrounding burial ground, is now almost the only memorial to be found of the original colony. This town was established two years before the settlement of Canada by the French, seven years before the founding of New York by the Dutch, and thirteen before the landing of the Puritans at Plymouth Rock. Subsequently, and at different intervals, the territory was peopled along parts of the coast of the Atlantic as far as Plymouth, by the English, Dutch, Swedes, and Finns. New York was colonized by the Dutch in 1614. The Swedes, Finns, and Germans settled in Delaware and New Jersey in 1683. Plymouth—the general name applied to New England—was established in December, 1620, by the Puritans, who arrived in the May Flower. These devoted men—the "Pilgrim Fathers"—found the country a howling wilderness,

inhabited by wild and savage beasts, and by men more savage still;—in the dead of winter, with no place of abode, their trust was alone in God. Before the opening of the ensuing spring, out of the one hundred and one who landed on the dreary shore, forty-six had died.

This great and deeply interesting historical occurrence—for such it has now become—has been so beautifully sketched by Mrs. Hemans, that the writer cannot refain from quoting her stanzas, although it may in some degree interrupt the course of his narrative.

"The breaking waves dash'd high
On a stern and rock-bound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches toss'd;
And the heavy night hung dark,
The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moor'd their bark
On the wild New England shore.

"Not as the conqueror comes,
They, the true-hearted, came;
Not with the roll of the stirring drums,
Or the trumpet that sings of fame;
Not as the flying come,
In silence and in fear;
They shook the depths of the desert's gloom,
With their hymns of lofty cheer.

"Amidst the storm they sang!
And the stars heard and the sea!
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang,
To the anthem of the free!
The Ocean eagle soar'd
From his nest by the white wave's foam,
And the rocking pines of the forest roar'd,—
This was their welcome home!

"What sought they thus afar?
Bright jewels of the mine?
The wealth of seas, the spoils of war?—
They sought a faith's pure shrine.
Aye, call it holy ground,
The spot where first they trod;
They have left unstained, what there they found,—
Freedom to worship God."

Besides the Puritans and other Englishmen, together with the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and Finlanders, the French made similar establishments in different portions of the continent, and all these were connected with the respective parent govern-

ments in Europe; but in 1664 all the settlements, excepting Louisiana and the Floridas, were subjected to English authority.

These several settlements, as arranged by the British Government, consisted of thirteen States, which long existed as provinces of Great Britain, containing at least a population of three millions. Their names were New Hampshire, Massachusetts (including Maine), Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. Vermont was claimed both by New Hampshire and New York, and had not acquired an independent colonial existence. The chief sea ports were Boston, Newport, New York, and Philadelphia. Each State contained from ten to twenty thousand inhabitants. But Parliament attempting to tax the colonists on its own authority, without the intervention of their legislative assemblies, and embarrassing their trade by restrictions, added to some irritating circumstances previously existing,* such as the refusal of the Parent Government to sanction an extension of the colonies into the interior, the forcible deportation of the French population of Nova Scotia under circumstances of gross oppression,—immortally commemorated by Longfellow's beautiful poem "Evangeline,"—together with other assumptions of power considered equally arbitrary and unjust,—all contributed to produce an alienation of the colonies from the English rule. A civil war ensued, which commenced at Lexington, near Boston, Massachusetts, in 1775, through the recklessness or indiscretion of General Gage. The colonists considered the mother country wholly selfish in her policy towards them, not only in the respects already named, but also by throwing impediments in the way of local manufacture, and by the enactment of absurd laws, the direct tendency of which was to repress the energies of the people, and reduce them to a state of literal serfdom and dependance.

It must, however, be confessed that the conduct of the British Government was not without some shadow of reason and justice. The expense that had been incurred by the mother country in

* The Stamp Act was passed by the Grenville administration in 1765, and the Duties on Tea, when Lord North was Prime Minister under the Tory administration of the latter, in 1771. The revolution commenced and continued during his administration of the government in the reign of George III.

its war with the French, in defence of her colonies, having increased the national debt to an enormous amount, they judged that, as the colonists had profited by the war, it would be but just that they should contribute their share towards the national burdens. But here was involved a principle—the colonists were unrepresented in the British Parliament, and this was an attempt to tax them without their consent. They contemplated the consequences, and refused. They contended that taxation and representation ought to go together; in other words, they resolved that if the British Government would not allow them to send representatives to parliament to speak on their own behalf, they would no longer submit to be taxed at its discretion,—they considered that they had a right both to self-taxation and to self-government. The colonists reasoned, remonstrated, petitioned; but in vain—the parliament of the day was inexorable; and great as was the pang, they thus cut asunder the ties that bound them to their fatherland, and disclaimed all further dependance on it. For

> "Dauntless was the patriot's heart,
> Though the tears were on his cheek."

They regarded it as a natural and essential right that a man should quietly enjoy and have the sole disposal of his own property,—a right to religious freedom in the sense which they chose themselves to put upon the term,—a right to construct their own municipal policy as they pleased; and these constitutional privileges were so familiar to the American people, that it was impossible to convince them that any necessity could render it just and equitable that parliament should impose duties or taxes on them, internal or external, for the sole purpose of raising a revenue, or deny them the right of control or amending the strictest fiscal regulation however oppressively it might bear upon them. They remembered Hampden and the ship-money of Charles I., together with the oppressions which had driven their forefathers to these very shores. As it is the tendency of misfortune to strengthen the character, so is it the tendency of oppression to strengthen and arouse the passions; while it is a natural law of man's spirit to grow more attached to that course which the tyranny of rulers proscribes. They had, therefore, recourse to arms for principles. Their leading men rejected the emoluments and honours which sycophancy might have retained or ambition acquired, for the sake of constitutional

right, and of that christian faith and practice which they were determined to preserve and promote at the hazard of their lives. And the result shows to how high a pitch of moral courage our species may be elevated, and what clear light in the science of government may be elicited from oppression and persecution. How interesting is the task of tracing the spirit which actuated and the effects that have resulted from these deeds, however much we may deplore the sacrifices at which they have been accomplished!

Within the limits of the States the flames of war raged, from Concord, Bunker's Hill, the Lakes, and Saratoga, Lexington on the Delaware, Schuylkill, the Chesapeak, and other scenes, *to* Charleston and York Town in Virginia, where, the colonists having been powerfully assisted by France, and to some extent by Spain and Holland, the grand termination was effected by the surrender of Lord Cornwallis. The colonists thus successful, Great Britain acknowledged their independence by the peace of 1783, after a calamitous and unnatural struggle of seven years' duration.

"Astonishing deeds throughout the world," says Bancroft, "attended these changes. Armies fought in the wilderness for rule over the solitudes which were to be the future dwelling-place of millions. Navies hunted each other in every sea, engaging in battle, now near the regions of the icebergs, now amongst the islands of the tropics. Inventive art was summoned to make war more destructive, and to signalize sieges by new miracles of ability and daring."*

At the commencement of this great contest America felt that she must belong to herself alone. She showed at once both the power and the will to be neither French, Spanish, Dutch, nor English, but to be America.

In the struggle, she released herself from the exactions of a distant dominancy,—she gained not only her independence, but her liberty. And though the whole country was impoverished, —the Union dissolving,—its sea ports desolate,—its ships decayed,—and the flower of its youth withered in the prison-ship or on the battle field,—America, awoke to an almost instantaneous and marvellous display of enterprize and energy, suddenly sprang into the rank of the mightiest of the nations, and now shines as a star of the first magnitude in the constella-

* History of the American Revolution.

tion of earthly kingdoms, sharing with her former mistress the dominion of the sea.

> "It often falls, in course of human life,
> That right long time is overborne of wrong,
> Through avarice or power, or guile or strife,
> That weakens her, and makes her party strong;
> But justice, though her doom she do prolong,
> Yet at the last she will her own cause right."

Though England, in her contest with America, had neither the support of popular sympathy nor the dignity of military success, she retired from the field of her disasters with some consolation. She had laid the broad foundation of a nation gifted with her own courage, intelligence, and enterprize;—an imperishable empire possessing her arts, her morals, her literature, and her religion; and although it was severed from her dominion, men of experience soon began to see, that future commercial intercourse with the United States would be more advantageous to the mother country than it could have been if they had remained in colonial subjection.

It has, indeed, been asserted by Sir William Molesworth, in the British House of Commons, that America has infinitely more benefited England by becoming independent, in consuming the manufactures of the parent state, than could ever have been the case had she continued a colonial appendage.* The importations of English products into the United States at the present time, are more than equal to those into all the colonies of Great Britain put together.†

The census of the United States, published in 1851,‡ estimated the present entire population of the United States at 25,000,000; of which, about one-third are slaves, Indians, and free persons of colour. More in detail, the Free States were found to contain between 13,000,000 and 14,000,000, the Slave States between 6,000,000 and 7,000,000 free, and about

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* In the year ending June 30th, 1850, the imports into the United States from Great Britain and Ireland were valued at 90,628,339 dollars, and the exports to 115,569,975 dollars.—*Chambers's Things as they are in America.*

† The question has been raised within the last few years, whether colonies are really of any advantage to a parent country, as the discovery has been made that supplies from, and for the colonies, can be procured by each elsewhere at lower prices than from each other.

‡ Compendium of the United States Census, by J. D. B. De Bow, Super. of the Union Census. Pp. 83—95. Washington, 1854. Hunt's Merchant's Magazine.

3,000,000 slaves; making the total about 25,000,000, as already stated. The more recent statistics of 1853 increased the population to 25,237,000. The entire representative population is upwards of 21,000,000, and the ratio of representation about 100,000.

The progressive increase of the inhabitants of the United States, as ascertained at the several census periods, is exhibited in the following table. Previous to 1790, no general enumeration had been taken, and the means were very imperfect for estimating the population of the colonies. According to a conjectural estimate, the aggregate population of the colonies was, in 1701, 262,000; in 1749, 1,046,000; in 1775, 2,803,000; the increase during a period of forty-eight years being in the aggregate about 300 per cent. (in Pennsylvania it was 1150, and in Virginia only 112½ per cent.)

The total population of the United States, as shown at each census period, is as follows:—

Census of 1790	3,929,827
1800	5,305,925
1810	7,239,814
1820	9,638,131
1830	12,866,020
1840	17,069,453
1850	23,191,876

It is now, in 1856, estimated at 27,114,287. At the close of 1854 the total population of the United States was, according to its average ratio of increase, in round numbers, 26,500,000.

Corrections being made for the admission of new territories, the census statistics show a regular diminution in the ratio of total as well as natural increase from 1790 to 1840. But from 1840 to 1850 the ratio, instead of declining, increased over 3 per cent. The whole number of white persons in the United States on the 1st of June, 1850, was 19,553,068, and of these 2,240,535, or about 11 per cent. of the aggregate were of foreign birth; 4,174,940, or 21 per cent., of those American born were born out of the States in which they reside. North Carolina has the smallest per cent. of white persons born out of the State, and California the largest. In North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, 95, 92, 90, 78 and 70 per cent. respectively of the free population were born in the States of their residence. In the new States, as Wisconsin, Iowa, and California, the proportion decreases to 17, 21, and 8 per cent.

Thus the thirteen original States have increased, in little more than three-quarters of a century, to thirty-one or thirty-two; and the national territory, to 3,000,000 of square miles; and while Mexico, during nearly the same period, has either receded or remained stationary in the population of its states and cities, the United States have increased from 3,000,000 to 26,000,000, and now exhibit an annual accession of 100,000 people. In the year 1829, it was calculated that 300,000 landed on her shores from Europe, and emigrants were still pouring into the country at the rate of 1,000 a day. In the two years of 1851 and 1852, we find from the returns of the Government Emigration Commissioners, that the emigration from the United Kingdom alone amounted to 511,018 adults —a number very nearly equal to the entire emigration of the twenty years ending in 1844.*

Thus Sir William Molesworth proved in 1848, that of 1,673,000 persons who had left England within twenty years, 825,564 had emigrated to the North American Union, not calculating the large number of those who had arrived there by way of Canada.

And in 1850, Lord John Russell showed that, of 787,400 who had sailed from the United Kingdom within the three preceding years, 525,120 were destined for the United States; and of 280,849 emigrants in 1850, 223,078 were to swell the population of the same vast Anglo-Saxon empire.

In 1855, there sailed from Great Britain and Ireland, in vessels registered and inspected by Government, 48,772 Irish, 19,524 English, 10,020 Scotch, 5,141 principally Germans, and 550 cabin passengers: total, 84,607. Full 2,500,000 of the population of England, it is estimated, within the last forty years, have gone to swell the population of America.

The number of emigrants at the present time in the United States is 2,244,602. 62,628 of these are farmers, 82,571 are labourers, 24,514 are mechanics, and nearly 100,000 are household domestics. 814,670 of the emigrants are in the Slave States, and 1,930,000 in the Free States. The annual number of emigrants who enter the United States is about 250,000; and the number of native births annually in the United States is about 654,000. The Irish emigrants settle in the commercial towns and along the great thoroughfares; the Germans settle

* Edinburgh Review.

mostly in the country; the English in the neighbourhood of towns on cultivated lands; the Scotch largely in New England and New York; the French in cities; and the Welsh in the neighbourhood of woods and mines.*

By a moderate calculation it will be seen that the population doubles itself every twenty-five years by natural increase alone, and will thus present towards the close of the present century a mass of human beings approaching 100,000,000, not to include the accession occasioned by the impetus created by the discovery of the gold treasures of California—from all Europe, and the countries of the Pacific Ocean and China. The growth of the population is without a parallel in the history of man.

In whatever direction you proceed, from the centre of every city or town to its various outlets, rows and piles of new buildings are in progress of erection, and green fields and fruitful gardens are being rapidly converted into streets and squares, with magnificent edifices, exhibiting

> "Many a row
> Of starry lamps and blazing crescents, fed
> With naphtha and asphaltus, yielding light
> As from a sky."

The flood of population has swept over the Alleghanies, crossed the blue Ohio and Father of Waters, following the shores of the Great Lakes, and is rolling up the Missouri in the far west; its advancing tide having already enlivened the coasts of Florida and Texas, and reached and peopled the shores of Oregon and California.

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* Liverpool Albion.

CHAPTER IV.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT ADOPTED.—Its nature and character. By whom originated. Assimilation of the rules and practices of the Congress to those of the British Houses of Parliament. Powers of the supreme legislature. Chief officers of Government: their necessary qualifications for office. Mode of appointment. Supreme Court of Judicature. Judges. Extent of jurisdiction. Judicial establishment.

The particular form of Government in the United States, as is well known, is a federative republic, or representative democracy, designated in the constitution of the general Government, which was framed in Philadelphia after the successful termination of the war of independence, by the title of "The Congress of the United States."

The constitution was drawn up by a convention of thirteen delegates,—one from each State,—assembled first at Philadelphia, the ancient capital; but principally by a committee composed of Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Livingston, and was finally accepted by Congress, and ratified by the people. Or, more particularly, the declaration whereby the thirteen provinces and colonies of North America withdrew their allegiance from George III., and proclaimed themselves to be free and independent States, was agreed to by their representatives, and published on the 4th of July, 1776. Jefferson and Adams were the sub-committee appointed to prepare it, and Jefferson was its author.*

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* Dr. Fishback, of Lexington, says, "The following circumstances, which occurred in the State of Virginia, related to Thomas Jefferson, and were detailed to me by Elder Andrew Tribble, about six years ago. He died when ninety-two or three years old. Andrew Tribble was the pastor of a small Baptist church, which held its monthly meetings at a short distance from Jefferson's house, eight or ten years before the American Revolution. Mr. Jefferson attended the meetings of the church for several months in succession, and, after one of them, asked Elder Tribble to go home and dine with him, with which he complied. Mr. Tribble asked Mr. Jefferson how he was pleased with their church government. Mr. Jefferson replied that it had struck him with great force; and had interested him much; that he considered it the only form of *pure democracy* that then existed in the world, and had concluded that it would be the *best plan of government for the American colonies*. To what extent this practical exhibition of

The articles of the constitution were presented by General Washington to Congress for their approval on the 17th of September, 1787. The constitution was formally inaugurated at New York in 1789, when Washington was chosen president, and John Adams vice-president, and this was the first Congress that was elected under the new constitution.

One of the clauses in the preamble of the constitution is to the following effect. "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America." Thus nobly did her first illustrious statesmen consolidate the rights so hardly gained into a permanent institution, and transmit it as a rich and glorious heritage to unborn generations.*

The Government is called a *federative republic*, because it is formed by the federation or union of all the States, and thus, like the Republics of ancient Greece, consists of a number of lesser Republics united in one great Commonwealth; with this difference, that the Republic of America possesses that in which those of the ancients were deficient—a central organ, invested with a specific general control.

Like the constitution of England, which was closely though not servilely followed, it provides for three branches of the Government; but it differs from that of Great Britain, as its three branches are elective, as it recognises a widely diffused suffrage, and excludes the aristocratic element; that of Great Britain being partly founded upon the old system of corporations and partly on that of a general national representation, thus to a considerable degree excluding the popular element. In England Government is supreme. It can alter, amend, enlarge, or abridge the constitution as circumstances may seem to require. In the United States, Congress has no such authority. It has a certain delegated power it can neither extend nor restrict; and

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religious liberty and equality operated on Mr. Jefferson's mind, in forming his views and principles of religious and civil freedom, which were afterwards so ably exhibited, I will not say."—*Winks's History of the Baptists.* [The declaration of independence was drawn out by Jefferson, but the constitution is supposed to have been framed by Madison.]

* The basis of Republicanism, however, was established in Massachusetts, will hereafter be seen, fifty years before by the Pilgrim Fathers.

such change must be submitted to the people at large in the separate States. It becomes, therefore, a matter of little or no importance what are the religious principles of the administrators of the Government. The Government of the United States secures to the people the grand principles of freedom, liberty of conscience in matters of religion, liberty of the press, trial by jury, and the right of choosing and being chosen to office.

Democracy is here a palpable existence in full operation,—an active principle, demonstrating man's capability to govern himself, and to determine between right and wrong in all political, as well as civil and religious affairs.

The meetings of the legislature are held in the Capitol, at Washington.

The Congress consists of a President, a Vice-President, a Senate, and a House of Representatives. The Senate is elected by the State legislatures; the Representatives are chosen directly by the people. In addition to the legislative and executive powers, is the judicial. The first-named makes the laws, the third expounds, and the second executes them; each constituting a distinct and independent branch. The President is the supreme executive officer, in accordance with the articles of the constitution, which also defines his qualifications and powers, and which are scarcely less ample than those of an English sovereign. He is elected for four years, eligible to reëlection at the expiration of that term, and in succession to his incapacity or death; although no instance has occurred in which the same President has been elected for more than two periods in succession.

On entering office, the President takes an oath to protect, preserve, and defend the constitution. He is Commander-in-Chief of the regular army, of the militia, and of the navy, and is alone invested with the supreme prerogative of mercy. He has the power of negociating treaties, though not of ratifying them until sanctioned by a majority of two-thirds of the Senate. He nominates all officers, civil and military; but the assent of the Senate is necessary to the validity of the appointments. He receives foreign ambassadors, and in almost every respect acts like, and possesses similar powers to those of a constitutional sovereign of Europe, only in a greater degree under the influence of the popular will, and with more of responsibility. The President is assisted in the discharge of his duties by a cabinet council, consisting of a Secretary of State, a Secretary of the

Treasury, and one for each of the principal naval and military departments, as also by a Postmaster and Attorney General.*

The legislative powers conferred by the constitution are vested in the Congress.

The Senate is composed of two members from each State, presided over, *ex officio*, by the Vice-President; and as there are now thirty-two States, this branch of the legislature consists of sixty-four representatives. They are elected for a term of six years, one-third of the number retiring by rotation every second year. It will be seen that there is a considerable analogy between the legislative principles and machinery of the two constitutions, as also a close resemblance between the two Houses, in the functions of office. Acting, indeed, with the consent of the State, the articles of the American constitution give to the Senate, in a few comprehensive phrases, nearly all the legislative powers enjoyed by the King, Lords, and Commons of Great Britain.

The qualifications of a senator are, that he be thirty years of age, that he has been a citizen during a term of nine years, and that he be a resident in the State for which he is returned.

In addition to its legislative functions, the Senate is recognised as a branch of the executive. In this capacity it is invested with the privilege of ratifying or annulling the official appointments of the President. Nor is a treaty with any foreign power valid until sanctioned by a majority of two-thirds of the Senate.

The House of Representatives is chosen every second year. Their numbers are not, as with the Senate, in proportion to the States, but to the population; this proportion not exceeding one for every 70,000 or 80,000 of the constituents; and thus every member of the House, numbering now 234,† has from 60,000 to 100,000 constituents.

There are, besides, delegates to the Lower House from the several organized territories. At present there are seven of such delegates, one each from Oregon, Minnesota, Utah, New Mexico, Washington, Kansas, and Nebraska. These, however, though they have a recognised right to speak on any question, are not privileged to vote.

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* Captain M'Kinnon's Transatlantic Sketches.

† The Illustrated News, in March, 1850, stated the number of representatives to be 223.

No one is eligible to this assembly who is not twenty-five years of age, who is not resident in the State in which he is chosen, or who has not enjoyed the privilege of citizenship for seven years. No qualification in property is required in a candidate; and the right of suffrage is nearly universal.

The successful candidate for the office of President of the United States must be a natural born citizen of the States, and thirty-five years of age at the least. His election is carried on according to the following forms:—Each of the States appoints, in such a manner as its own legislature directs, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or confidence under the United States, can be an elector. The electors meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State as themselves; they name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and lists of the names contained in the ballot are transmitted, sealed up, to the President of the Senate of the United States, who examines them in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives. The person having the greatest number of votes is President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives chooses immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President the votes are taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose consists of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States is necessary to a choice. If the House of Representatives do not choose a President before a fixed day (the 4th of March ensuing the election), the Vice-President is to act as President, as in case of death or constitutional disability of the President.

The House of Representatives performs the duties allotted by the British constitution to the Commons House of Parliament, and has the right like it of originating bills for creating revenue.

In order to the passing of laws, the Senate and the House of Representatives must agree. To the President is reserved an

additional veto, which can always be overruled by a majority of two-thirds, for any debateable measure.

In the United Congress are vested the power and right of determining peace or war, of raising armies, voting and levying supplies, and, as already said, with the consent of the President, of ratifying and confirming treaties.

The members of Congress, during the performance of their legislative functions in session, contrary to the custom in England, sit uncovered; and if they are not compensated for their services, they are reimbursed their expenses by the respective States they represent, at the ratio of eight dollars, or about £1 16s. per diem; and the Speaker sixteen dollars; while the same sum is allowed them for every twenty miles travelling to and from their homes on the business of the country.

In a general sense, the rules and practice of the British Houses of Lords and Commons form the basis of the proceedings of the American Senate and House of Representatives, modified as circumstances successively seem to require. It may be said indeed, generally, that the spirit of the British mixed constitution rules the organization of the whole system of government in the United States, and its forms are adhered to in almost every instance in which their employment is useful or inoffensive. The same may be said also of the standing orders for the regulation of actual business, and of the conduct of debates and divisions, of the progress of bills in their several stages, &c., together with other circumstances of routine, which experience has found to be both convenient and necessary.

While the Congress represents the people, the Senate represents the State Governments. As, however, the defence of the country, the regulations of commerce, and all the general concerns of the Union, are committed by the Constitution to the general Government, so each separate State has its own institutions, constitution, laws, and governor, and is thus independent in the management of its own local affairs. The States are thus permitted by the general Congress to govern themselves, when their ordinances and customs are not at variance with the general concord.

These State Governments, therefore, are not, as has been supposed, subordinate to the general,—not, for instance, as was that of the Ionian Islands to Athens, but coördinate departments of one simple and integral whole.

Every single State, indeed, is a perfect realm, with almost all the various circumstances and resources of an European kingdom, losing nothing of its distinctiveness, we may almost say, its nationality, by its alliance. Thus the United States are a confederation of republics, and Congress a magnificent central luminary round which all the States revolve; it is the sun of the Union, and all the rest of the system moves in harmony along with it, and shines by its reflected beams; urged by impulses suited to its various parts, and following a common course, which is the course of nature.

In all the States the great popular prerogative of self-government is respected. It is, however, the duty of the President to preserve order in each territory or State, to vindicate the laws, whether federal or local, and to protect the people in the full enjoyment of self-government from all encroachments from without.

When the inhabitants of an organized territory desire a State Government, and are of sufficient numbers for the formation of a State, it is the custom for a convention of delegates to be appointed by such territory to prepare a constitution, and submit their claim to the central Government by a memorial.

The supreme court of judicature, or hall of justice of the United States, is also held in an apartment of the Capitol. The court consists of one Chief Justice and eight assistant Judges,* removeable only by impeachment, and possesses a federal jurisdiction over the whole of the Union. These Judges, the only ones in America who in this respect retain the customs of their ancestors, appear in the robes and accustomed attire of similar officials in England.

The court holds its sittings annually during two months, commencing in December or January each year, and is alone competent to decide questions relating to the constitution or general laws of the Union, except between a State and its citizens, and the citizens of other States and foreigners: in the latter case it has original, but not exclusive jurisdiction.

Though possessing original jurisdiction in a few cases, its chief duties consist in the exercise of an appellate jurisdiction from the circuit courts, which are held twice a year in the different States, and exclusively in relation to cases that may have

* The salary of the Chief Justice is 6,500 dollars, and that of the assistants, 6,000 dollars each.

respect to the claims of foreign nations or their representatives. Its jurisdiction extends, also, over all controversies, internal or external, in which the general Government may be involved, or one State be in any way at variance with another; but the power that gives the institution its transcendent importance, is that of deciding between the law and the constitution. This court is regarded as the sheet anchor of the Union; that which, more than all besides of a civil, political, or judicial character, has given it permanency; and the degree of respect in which its decrees are held may be considered an exact index to the moral strength of the compact by which the discordant elements of this great Commonwealth are so well harmonised.

The present judicial establishment consists of the supreme court, thirty-eight district courts, and the circuit courts. The judicial circuit courts are ten in number, in which a circuit court is held semi-annually by a justice of the supreme court and the district judge of the state or district, in which the court is held. The district courts are presided over by thirty-seven judges; and in each of the territories there is also a judge, and two associate judges, appointed by the executive of the United States.

In the States there are no courts, or sessions of courts, technically called assizes. The judges, however, perform the same duties in the counties within their respective circuits and jurisdiction as the English judges, and generally in the same manner. The American judges have not, like the English, any special commission—their commission is single, and appoints them to the office. But the general and public laws mark out and define their duties and authorities whether general or special; and these duties and authorities are generally subject to be altered and changed by the legislature, as are those of the judges in England.

As the courts of law in the United States resemble in their general principles those of the country from which they originated, so the decisions of the English courts of law may be always quoted there as authorities. It may be said, indeed, that the whole judicial part of the constitution of the United States very nearly corresponds with that of England.

CHAPTER V.

Description of the Capitol at Washington, and the natural beauties of its situation.—The Hall of the Senate and House of Representatives. Principal members of both Houses. Amount of talent among the members compared with that in the past age; Webster, Clay, Calhoun, and others. Mode and character of the debate in the Senate. Present leading men in both branches of the Legislature. Proportion of members supplied by the old States. Calculation of the influence of particular States in the national council. Preponderance of gentlemen of the legal profession in both Houses. Names and number of Presidents since the establishment of the Republic. President's house. President. Principal officers of State. Salary of President, and that of inferior officers.

The meetings of the several branches of the legislature, it has been already intimated, are held in the Capitol, at Washington, the foundation-stone of which was laid by General Washington in 1793.

This building, although it has not escaped the criticisms of men of professed taste in architectural science, some of whom regard it as the reverse of Ovid's description of the Temple of the Sun,—

"*Materiam superabit opus*,"—

is a noble structure, of the Corinthian order, and of considerable dimensions, standing on the banks of the beautiful Potomac, at the extremity of the street denominated the "Pennsylvania Avenue," the principal thoroughfare of the city.* It occupies a spot of elevated ground, commanding a panoramic view of the whole of the surrounding country, which is varied with luxuriant fields and woods, hills, villas, and other beautifully picturesque objects. It consists of a central building with two wings, the centre and each of the wings surmounted by a cupola, or low circular dome of glass; the whole stately pile surrounded by a park of from twenty to thirty acres, recently increased to one hundred and fifty acres, the principal entrance being through a superb marble gateway in the form of a triumphal arch; the whole area ornamented with trees, lawns, fountains, and statues, and subdivided by terraces, avenues, and public walks.

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* Pennsylvania Avenue is said to be the widest street in the world, measuring 160 feet in width. It is well paved, and has side walks of brick or stone.

The entire length of the building is 352 feet; but since the addition of two wings to the Capitol, commenced in 1851, the whole length is 750 feet, and the area it covers is more than three-and-a-half acres; forming a structure when completed worthy the great Republic,—its gleaming white walls, and colossal proportions rising loftily above the sea of verdure, and the lofty forest trees which gracefully shade the pleasure grounds around. Its height to the summit of the central dome is upwards of 120 feet, and its shape like that of a cross. From the top of the dome a most magnificent view is obtained of the city and adjacent country, —the two broad arms of the Potomac embracing the city and its suburbs,—and far in the distance are seen the woody hills of Virginia and Maryland. The vestibule, or triple colonnade, at the eastern front of this noble building, which is formed of twenty-four Corinthian columns of imposing dimensions, opens to a large circular hall or rotunda, which occupies the centre of the building. This is divided into several compartments, lighted by the dome, and ornamented between the niches with beautiful paintings by Trumbull, together with groups of statuary and busts, principally of the most prominent actors in the scenes of the revolution, and representing interesting incidents in American history. In the rotunda is a celebrated statue of Washington, executed in Parian marble, by Greenhough, and the Landing of the Pilgrims, and other sculptures in alto relievo. Among the paintings of the Capitol, are those of the Surrender of Generals Burgoyne and Cornwallis,—the Presentation to Congress of the Declaration of Independence,—Washington resigning his Commission,—Penn treating with the Indians,—the Embarkation of the Pilgrims, &c. In the pediment of the eastern portico is a fine sculptured group, representing the genius of America, supported by figures of Hope and Justice, and surrounded with appropriate emblems, of which the national eagle is one of the most prominent. On the platform under the portico are two colossal statues in marble, the one representing War in the figure of a Roman general armed for conflict; the other Peace as a female holding an olive branch; while above is a bas-relief of Washington crowned by Fame. Some of the statues or historical mementos of the revolution, which are of gigantic proportions, and in classic taste, are said to have been executed by Capellano, Causici, Gavelot, and others, the former a disciple of Canova.

The other parts of the building, to the north and south, in-

clude the House of Representatives, Senate, and Hall of Justice, the Library of Congress, and about seventy apartments for the accommodation of committees.

The first is a splendid semicircular saloon, ninety-five feet in length, and sixty in height; also lighted by the dome. Round the arc of the saloon is a range of columns composed of breccia, with a highly decorated entablature of white marble, —vieing in beauty with the verd antiquities of Italy.. These columns support a gallery, part of which is appropriated to the accommodation of ladies who desire to attend the debates, and is sometimes filled with the beauty and fashion of the city and by visitors from the provinces.

In the centre of the chord is the chair of the Speaker, raised considerably above the floor of the area, richly canopied, from which radiate seven passages to the circumference; and the writing-desks and seats of the members—each individual member possessing one of these conveniences to himself, thoroughly furnished—are ranged in concentric rows. Behind the chair is a kind of corridor or gallery, supported by twenty-four columns of marble, crowned with Corinthian capitals, forming an oblong square, with a stove at each extremity; which apartment being furnished with chairs, sofas, *spittoons*,* and other requisites, serves as a lounging place for the members, and for strangers to whom the Speaker thinks proper to allow the privilege of *entré*.

The Hall of the Senate is much smaller than that of the Representatives, being seventy-four feet long and ninety-six feet high, but it is more elegantly furnished. This room is also in the form of a semicircle, and is in style of arrangement similar to the Hall of Representatives; the Vice-President, as the Speaker of the Upper House, occupying an elevated chair, beneath a crimson canopy, in the centre of the radius line fronting the semicircle. The principal materials of the room are of marble, and the floor is beautifully paved in mosaic.

The amount of talent among the members of the Senate, compared with other days, is said to be such as exhibits little or no deterioration. If none are found to supply the place of

* Spittoons, among articles of furniture, will doubtless appear strange to English ideas, but they are become necessaries in America by the indulgence of a repulsive national habit. The custom, however, would appear less revolting if the vessels completely answered the uses for which they are intended, especially in rooms richly carpeted.

Webster, with his mighty grasp of intellect; of Clay, the great embodiment of his country's nationality, with his glowing and silvery eloquence; of Calhoun, the nervous, energetic, mystic, but powerful southern orator; and of Benton, long the father of the Senate, without a rival in political experience and facts bearing upon the interests of his country; it will appear that the average amount of legislative wisdom is preserved in the whole number, and thus the proportion of really inferior men is comparatively small.

Webster, Clay, Calhoun,—that great triumvirate,—are all gone; they have left the scenes of which they formed the central point of interest, and no Elisha has yet caught their fallen mantle.

Of Webster especially, the American people may well be proud. Though never elected to fill the Presidential chair, he attained the highest moral elevation of earthly honour. He commanded, by the potent influence of his station and talents, the destinies of an empire; he swayed the fortunes of the senate and the nation by the overpowering force and splendour of his eloquence; the efforts of his gigantic intellect far outstripped those of his compeers. He may be likened to some mighty comet moving in majestic career through the heavens, tracking the path of its travels with a radiant brightness, throwing off the sparkling corruscations of its glory, and commanding the wonder and admiration of mankind.

Though there may not be often exhibited in the Congress of the United States, as in the English Parliament, those oratorical displays which delude the judgment as often as they excite the fancy, yet there are frequently manifested the higher qualities of the legislator,—a comprehensive and statesmanlike sagacity of intellect,—evident power of philosophical generalization,—accurate knowledge, and dexterity in its application to circumstances,—capacity for patient labour,—quickness of comprehension, and stern masculine common sense.

Many of the men possessing these qualities, perhaps, are comparatively little known to fame; but

"Strongest minds
Are often those of whom the noisy world hears least."*

The mode of debate in the Senate, on particular occasions, has been considered by some European judges as semi-theatrical.

* Wordsworth's Excursion.

The debates do not so much deserve the character of argumentative and logical, as that of a succession of orations, carefully elaborated, delivered with oratorical effect, and generally treating the subject with a philosophic completeness not usual in England.

The leading men in the Senate, as at present constituted, are Cass, Crittenden, Benton, Hunter, Mason, Soule, Atherton, Douglas, Rusho, and Sumner, with Clayton, Seward, Everett, Pease, Dixon, Jones, Badger, Truman, Smith, and Geyer. General Cass and Messrs. Crittenden and Benton are the veterans of the Senate, having each reached the age of seventy years.* Most of the others have been born during the present century. The average ages of the forty-five oldest senators, as nearly as can be calculated, is about fifty.

The old States still preserve the preponderance in furnishing national legislators. There are no fewer than thirty-nine out of every forty-nine senators whose birthplaces are known to have been in the old thirteen States. Ethnologically, the fifty-six senators (there being six vacancies) may be thus classed:—

Those of Anglo-Saxon origin thirty-nine; Scotch, five; Welsh, six; Irish, one; French, three; Spanish, one; German, one; total, fifty-six.

One of the most striking points in the list of senators, is the vast preponderance of gentlemen of the legal profession. A foreigner, in looking at the occupations in private life of the executive and legislative of the Government of the United States, might suppose that the constitution provided that lawyers should always have the preference. No less than forty-one of the United States senators are, or have been, of the legal profession, leaving fifteen for other occupations; of these last, the medical profession have two, the mechanics two, the military, the planters, and retired gentlemen the remainder; the merchants not having one of their own number to represent them.†

The Presidents of the United States, since the adoption of the constitution, have been as follows:—George Washington, Virginia; John Adams, Massachusetts; Thomas Jefferson, Virginia; James Madison, Virginia; James Munro, Virginia; J. Quincy Adams, Massachusetts; Andrew Jackson, Tennessee; Martin Van

* Fraser's Magazine, January, 1853.
† New York Herald.

Buren, New York; William Henry Harrison, Ohio; John Tyler, Virginia; James K. Polk, Tennessee; Zach. Taylor, Louisiana; Millard Fillmore, New York; Franklin Pierce, New Hampshire; and George Buchanan, Pennsylvania.

The President's house stands on an eminence at the opposite extremity of Pennsylvania Avenue, about a mile distant from the Capitol, surrounded also by extensive pleasure grounds of great sylvan beauty, gently rising from the Potomac, whose calm, blue waters spread out in long perspective before the southern front. It is a handsome building, with a portico to the south and north, supported by fine lofty, Ionic columns. The principal materials, as also those of the Capitol, are of sandstone, found in the vicinity, which is by no means durable, being continually impaired by the action of the atmosphere; but, being painted white, has at a distance the appearance of white marble. The entrance-hall is spacious; but the more public apartments generally are plainly furnished. On each side are the offices for the state, war, navy, and treasury departments. The other most important buildings in the city are the Post and Patent Offices, and the Smithsonian Institute.

While the President of this great country maintains the dignity of his high office, and in general supports it, he exacts no external deference beyond that which in ordinary life one gentleman is entitled to claim from another. His dress, even on public occasions, is usually that of a plain suit of black. And although a stranger would discover nothing of the conventional magnificence and courtly elegance in the great Republican Palace, any more than in the person or attire of the President, which he would behold in the abodes of royalty in Europe, he would at the same time see nothing which the most polished courtier could attribute to coarseness and vulgarity.

There is perfect freedom from tinsel and glare, from pomp and circumstance, both in the President and the Court. The President has no guard of honour, and his residence is without a sentinel.

The Americans dare to carry out their purposes,—to set themselves against the current,—to uphold the principles which they honestly believe. One of the most deeply interesting spectacles that have been seen in modern times was the appearance of the American "*Charge d'Affaires*," amidst the splendours of a levee in the palace of Napoleon the Third, dressed with the quiet simple elegance of a private gentleman;

—a truly honourable representative of the great model Republican Government of the United States!*

The salary of the President is 25,000 dollars, or £5,625 per annum; that of the Vice-President is 8,000 dollars per annum; of the Secretary of State, Treasury, War, Navy, and of the Interior, together with the Postmaster and Attorney-General, 8,000 dollars each. The Chief Justice has 6,500 dollars, and his associate justices, 6,000 each per annum. The salary of the Speaker of the House of Representatives is 8,000 dollars.†

The pay of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary is 9,000 dollars per annum as salary, in addition to 9,000 outfit. The pay of a *Charge d'Affaires* is 4,500 dollars per annum; the Secretaries of Legation, 2,000 dollars; of Ministers resident, 6,000. The salaries of British Ambassadors amount to 90,000 dollars a year, they having from 10,000 to 8,000 per annum each.

While the Government of the United States is the most free and liberal in the world, its administration of affairs is the least expensive. Its national debt, in 1853, if such it may be called, and as will hereafter be more definitely shown, was only 9,844,525 dollars—an amount not equal to the annual interest paid by some nations on their loans.

Dr. Franklin, and the other eminent statesmen who framed the constitution, must have pondered the sentiment of Cicero: "Non intelligunt homines quam magnum vectigal sit parsimonia,"‡ and which is especially verified in the experience of the Government of the United States as the result of practical effort in every department of the State.

Although Jamaica is an islet of the Atlantic, much less in size than the county of York, with not double the population of one town in that county, it pays taxes that would suffice for

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* It is to be regretted that, in 1853, instructions were issued by the Government of the United States to its representatives at foreign courts, to use the ordinary court dress, but still recommending that of an American citizen when practicable!

† The Governor of Jamaica has 40,000 dollars for governing 400 000 people, when the President of the United States receives only 25,000 for 25,000,000 of subjects; 15 000 dollars for a Chief Justice in Jamaica, and 10,000 each for his associates, when the Chief Justice of the highest tribunal in the United States gets only 6,000; and so on through a succession of salaries in Jamaica all proportionably enormous and equally unnecessary.

‡ Mankind are not aware to how great an extent a strict economy will attain the same object as increase of revenue.—*Cicero's Paradoxes.*

the whole government, civil and military, of half-a-dozen principalities. The whole civil charges of nine of the original colonies which now constitute the most influential members of the American Union, amount to no more than £64,700 a year: the civil expenditure of Jamaica, less by a considerable space than any one of them, amounts to £400,000 per annum. The annual civil charges of the State of Maryland, four times the size of Jamaica, are but £26,000: the police of Jamaica are supported at an annual cost larger than the whole civil charges in the State of Maryland; while the annual disbursements of the country, to be provided for by taxes, are £400,000.*

Notwithstanding that the state of the insolvent laws in the United States, and of the relations of the currency to the banks and the legislature, are not calculated to place their dealings as a nation on a safe and substantial basis, yet it is remarkable that the whole amount of taxation of the country, including local imports, is not at present more than what is expended for the collection of the revenue and parochial taxes in the United Kingdom.

Some time since, owing to a scarcity of money and the want of a circulating medium, which operated as a great impediment to domestic commerce and improvement, a system of credit was created, which not only occasioned a disordered state of mercantile affairs, but involved the character and credit of the nation. Banks were unsafe, and suspended payment. The whole system of credit was expanded to suit the ambitious scope and insufficient means of speculation, which brought on a crisis that shook the Republic to its centre. The secret power of some houses, and the bad management of others, were thus at length brought to light. Commercial gambling had at last brought upon itself a severe rebuke. But legitimate trade and the banking system were purified by the ordeal, and the whole monetary system placed on a more substantial basis.

On the 1st of January, 1850, there were in the United States 1,808 banks. Capital, 345,874,272 dollars; specie, 59,814,068 dollars; circulation, 105,745,050 dollars; loans and discounts, 681,183,280 dollars; deposits, 212,705,062 dollars; real estate, 20,865,867 dollars.

The annual report of the Director of the Mint gives the

* Examiner, 1848.

following statement of the deposits and coinage at the various mints for the year ending June, 1855:—

	Dollars.
Entire gold deposit	64,223,893
Entire silver deposit	5,793,114
Gold coinage	53,097,182
Silver coinage	5,219,180
Copper coinage	22,455
Gold pieces	3,870,004
Silver pieces	22,848,760
Copper pieces	2,274,147

The gold product of California for 1855 was 58,111,466 dollars. The whole coinage of the United States since the declaration of her independence in 1793 is 498,866,567 dollars; of which amount there has been received from California, since 1848, 313,234,330 dollars.*

Dollars in the United States are divided into dimes, cents, and mills. The dollar in the Northern States is 6s. currency; in New York and North Carolina, 8s.; in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, &c., 7s. 6d.; and in South Carolina and Georgia, 4s. 8d. A golden eagle is ten dollars, or £2 3s. 8d. sterling; a dollar is 4s. 3½d. sterling; and a cent, 208 grs. of copper, the hundredth of a dollar.

There are 22,688 post offices in the United States. The post office regulations and rates of postage are as follows:—Postage on letters sent to any point in the United States must be invariably pre-paid. Letters not exceeding half an ounce, and within 3,000 miles, three cents, and the same for every additional half-ounce or fraction thereof. Over 3,000 miles, ten cents, and the same for every additional half-ounce or fraction thereof.

Each newspaper, periodical, unsealed circular, or other article of printed matter, not exceeding three ounces in weight, to any part of the United States, one cent; and for every additional ounce or fraction of an ounce, one cent additional: when the postage on any newspaper or periodical is paid yearly or quarterly in advance, one-half of said rates. Small newspapers and periodicals published monthly, or oftener, and pamphlets, not containing more than sixteen octavo pages each, when sent in single packages, weighing at least eight ounces, to one address, and pre-paid, by affixing postage stamps thereto, shall

* Amer. Chris. Alm., 1850, 1856, 1857.

be charged only half of a cent for each ounce, or fraction of an ounce. The postage on all transient matter shall be pre-paid, or be charged double the rates above mentioned. The publishers of weekly newspapers may send to each actual subscriber within the county where their papers are printed and published one copy thereof free of postage.

Foreign Postage.—From any point in the United States, to England, Scotland, and Ireland, by British and American steamers, twenty-four cents a single rate, or half-ounce, pre-paid or not. Newspapers (wrapped in a narrow band, with both ends open) two cents, pre-paid. To Bremen, by American line, twenty cents, pre-paid or not; newspapers, two cents, pre-paid. To other points on the Continent of Europe, the inland and sea postage is twenty cents, the residue of the postage is paid abroad. To most other countries of the world, postage can be pre-paid at any office in the United States, varying from twenty to eighty-seven cents a rate of half ounce, but in many countries the rate is one-fourth instead of one-half an ounce. Newspapers and periodicals pre-paid, may be sent to most foreign countries.

Books by mail.—The new postage law enables persons to forward books by mail at a very moderate expense, to any place within 3,000 miles, as will be seen by the following order:—

"Books, bound or unbound, not weighing over four pounds, shall be deemed mailable matter, and chargeable with postage at one cent an ounce for all distances under 3,000 miles, and two cents an ounce for all distances over 3,000 miles, to which fifty per cent. shall be added in all cases where the same may be sent without being pre-paid."

CHAPTER VI.

ANNUAL EXPENDITURE OF THE GOVERNMENT.—Its great economy compared with that of England and her colonies. Past and present financial state. Chief sources of revenue. Total amount of revenue per annum. Insolvent laws. Banks. Great economy preserved throughout every department of the State. Theory of political economy in the United States. Liberality of the Government, and its beneficial results. Equality of political, civil, and religious rights. General estimate of these advantages by the masses. Misrepresentations of the workings of the Government by tourists and others. Refutation of these misrepresentations. Adaptation of the Republican form of Government to the character and circumstances of the American people. The equality recognised not incompatible with social distinctions. Beneficial results of the Government exemplified in the union, order, and progress of the nation. The national feeling and sentiment in regard to the Government. Lines by Sir William Jones on what constitutes a State. Anomalous conduct of America towards a great portion of her population. Her injustice and impolicy in perpetuating Slavery.

The revenue of the general federal Government is derived almost exclusively from the sale of lands, and from duties on imports and tonnage, or foreign merchandise; and it can create no other. Direct taxes, or internal levies on the people, are inconsiderable, amounting on an average to little more than eight shillings per annum each person, and are principally raised and appropriated by the respective State Governments. While an American farmer purchases the fee simple of his property for five shillings per acre, he pays no tithes, no church-rates, no poor-rates,—in the West, no income-tax, no highway rate in money, and, with few exceptions, no turnpike tolls,—the markets of Europe and the world being open to him. In the neighbourhood of Kentucky, where assessments on hereditaments are considered high, the entire amount paid by the owner of a house and farm worth four thousand dollars is not more than seven dollars per annum, or less than one-fifth of a dollar for every hundred.

The receipts into the treasury, exclusive of loans, have increased from 26,000,000 to over 49,000,000 dollars; and the Californian trade, the whole of which does not appear in the published returns,*—the commercial phenomenon of this com-

* *Vide* United States Treasury returns for June, 1852, quoted from Blackwood, June, 1854.

mercial age,—has also added 100,000,000 dollars to the national commerce, and, more than any event in the last forty years, has invigorated the navigating interest of the country, exerting a powerful influence over the commercial marine of the world, by swelling the internal trade of the United States, and enabling her to own more than two-fifths of the tonnage of the world.

In the year ending June, 1852, the treasury returns exhibit an increase of ten per cent.

For the fiscal year of 1853 there was a treasury surplus of 32,000,000 dollars, with which only 18,000,000 dollars of the public debt was paid, leaving the debt 56,000,000 dollars. The message of the President recommended further progress in extinguishing the debt with the surplus,—reported the navy to be indifferent, and recommended improvement,—an increase of the army, especially on the frontiers,—and a reduction of the tariff, as the second best means of preventing a future surplus. Other estimates for 1853 affirm the expenses of the Government to be 54,000,000, and its receipts 61,000,000 dollars; further affirming that by accumulated balances there was at the same time on hand 75,000,000 dollars,—stating the same difficulty as to the disposal of the surplus.

Their revenue for the year ending June, 1854, was 14,000,710 dollars, being an increase over that of the previous year of 2,440,000 dollars, exclusively of about 100,000,000 dollars from California.

Revenue and expenditure of the United States Government for the year ending June 30th, 1855:—

RECEIPTS.	Dollars.
From customs	53,025,794
From lands	11,497,049
Miscellaneous sources	461,087
Total receipts	65,003,930
Balance in Treasury, July 1st, 1854	20,137,967
	85,141,897
Expenditures	66,209,922
Balance in Treasury, July 1st, 1855	18,931,975

EXPENDITURES.	Dollars.
Civil List, Miscellaneous, and Foreign intercourse	24,183,497
Department of Interior	4,126,739
" of War	14,773,[illegible]
" of Navy	13,201,342
Public Debt	9,044,520
Total expenditures	66,209,922

The expenditure of the United States for the year ending June 30th, 1856, is as follows:—Judicial, 251,000 dollars; expenses of the United States Courts, 800,000 dollars; intercourse with foreign nations, 936,862 dollars; pensions, 1,458,947 dollars; the whole amount to 68,604,028 dollars. During the session from twenty to thirty thousand acres of national property have been given to different companies.

At the close of the last financial year, it is stated that twenty or thirty millions of gold and silver dollars were lying idle in the treasury vaults, as a net amount subject to draft, and that large appropriations had been made during the three or four past years to enlarge the Capitol, and other public buildings at Washington.

By estimating the improved land at ten dollars per acre, and the unimproved at three, and calculating various other kinds of property and sources of wealth at a moderate valuation, the aggregate amount of national wealth has been estimated at 8,760,000,000 dollars. The total value of real and personal property in January, 1853, was 10,885,036,800 dollars.

The whole exports are 74,000,000 dollars, and of the imports 77,000,000; the tonnage in foreign and coasting trade is 1,200,000 dollars. The increase in the value of the produce of industry during the last forty years has been tenfold.

It has ever been the aim of the legislature to reduce the duties on imports to a fair system of revenue, and thus to extract nothing more from the pockets of the people than is absolutely necessary to meet the expenses of the Government. The American Government extract nothing from the miseries of the people. They reduce expenditure to the utmost, without detriment to the public service. No taxes are levied on local manufacturing industry. They even receive the produce of Texas and California, which may properly be called colonies, and of the territorial regions stretching hundreds of leagues beyond the falls of St. Anthony on the upper Mississippi, and to the spurs and vallies of the Rocky Mountains, free of all charges and restrictions, into their ports and harbours, and into the great trading depôts of the interior; whilst they levy an indiscriminate duty on all British goods of upwards of fifty per cent. The only taxes are those on articles imported from foreign countries.

In 1830, the President's speech announced the revenue at twenty-four millions of dollars, while the expenditure was little more than thirteen millions. In the same year, Mr. Hume informed the English House of Commons that their naval and military establishments alone amounted to seventeen millions sterling. Regarding the physical welfare of man, so far as it can be the care of Government and an object of political economy, the practice of the Americans, grounded on large experience, seems to accord more with the theory of Sismondi

than with that of Adam Smith. The restriction of cash payments having proved fatal to the progress of the doctrines of the latter, they seem to view political economy as a science of proportions; they appear to recognise the principle that income must increase with capital,—that population must not go beyond the income upon which it has to subsist,—that consumption should increase with population,—and that reproduction should be proportioned to the capital which produces, and to the population which consumes it.

The extent to which each is dependent upon all the rest in a particular country for the commonest necessaries and comforts of life, and one commercial nation on all others, is one of the most interesting of all the complicated phenomena of a high industrial state.

On the supposition that the original founders of the constitution, and their coadjutors in the administration of the government, were influenced by no fixed principles of political economy, they yet saw and acted upon the conviction how necessary it was,—how much to the interest of the Government,—to relieve the commerce of the country from all unjust local dues,—all imposts, of whatsoever nature they might be, from which trade did not derive an equivalent benefit; and by permitting no direct taxation but that of the State, to enable trade to gain the elasticity which is the result of freedom, and to qualify it to bear without injury a fuller share of the national burdens.

Thus prosperity may be said to reign among all classes of society in the United States. The wages of labour are abundant. The prices of some articles are high, because there is a currency in which those prices, consisting of natural cost and tariff duties, are to a fair and just extent permitted; the producing classes do not feel those duties or this species of taxation to be oppressive, because remuneration is more than adequate to expenditure at such prices. Plenty therefore, content, loyalty to the Government, and attachment to the national institutions prevails to an unexampled extent; and thus, if the end of civilization is to discover and employ the best remedies in mitigation of the evils of poverty and wretchedness, it will be seen that the Americans have achieved what other Governments have in vain essayed.

In the United States there is no hereditary rank, nor is rank always connected with office. They seem to act on the aphorism

of Juvenal, that "virtue is the best nobility." On the basis of the constitution, the great men of the nation stand on a level with their humble but virtuous brethren. All of honour and distinction which the Government has to confer, is bestowed on many of those whom other Governments would overlook as unworthy of notice. The condition in life of a citizen is a matter of small importance. He is tried by another test than that of wealth and family connections, and his claims to favour rest on other and higher considerations. This principle of making moral worth the platform on which man should meet his fellow-man, is the true Republican principle: it is the first element of civil and religious liberty. The Americans, from the highest to the lowest, thus feel that they have a common cause, a common end, and a common destiny. The Government gives to the people their rights. The enlightened few, in their own defence, enlighten the many. It extends power to the million, and public opinion rules the country. Those who hope for legislative honours or distinctions, pay court to public opinion.

Elections are not a contest for power, but of argument; and the people by long use have the knowledge to choose their representatives, and seldom fail to give them proper instructions. There may be some among the masses who confound insubordination and recklessness with liberty, but, excepting in the newly-peopled territories, where criminals and others have fled from the restraints of civilized life, they are not numerous, and are daily decreasing. "That is true liberty, when a nation, like an individual, itself wills the restraints which it imposes on itself."

It may be said generally that no people seem to have so just an idea of the nature, the effect, and end of civil government as the people of the United States. Their form of government has been objected against, repudiated, ridiculed, and condemned by Capts. Marryatt, Hall, and others, on account of its alleged deficiencies and evils; while sober, thinking, unprejudiced men have judged that if Republicanism has its faults, so also has a Monarchy,—that cavils may be made against all human institutions,—that while there must be weaknesses and deficiencies in the American Commonwealth, it would be equally ungenerous and untrue to deny that the principles of the Government of the United States are conformable to the manliness, benevolence, and integrity of the national character,—

that, although it has never been pretended to be a standard of pure integrity and uncorrupted political principle, it eminently subserves the security of property, honesty, and public feeling in public functionaries, the sanctity of moral obligation, and the faithful execution of simple and equitable laws. In a word, it is a Government chosen by the people, and chosen to suit them,—one most congenial with the feelings of their nature, and most favourable to their enjoyment of equal civil rights,—a form of constitution that grew out of the wants and tendencies of men now to the climate of liberty. It makes no invidious distinctions; there is no partiality,—no respect of persons. Its spirit and genius are those of perfect political and civil equality. It creates no dukes, marquisses, earls, or lords; there are no aristocracy,—no hereditary rights,—no hereditary honours and privileges. The whole nation is politically a level mass, without any nobles or local magnates either to check or to head public opinion. It seems to recognise the fact that wealth and poverty emanate from the same omnipotent Source,—that the same affections and sentiments are common to rich and poor,—and that under a plain attire or toil-worn garment vibrates a heart equally warm and generous with that of the man who may be arrayed in the costly fashion which competency and wealth place within his reach.

It cannot be said in America "that laws rule the poor, and rich men rule the law." The law affords the same protection and security to the poor as to the rich; to the weak as to the strong. Like the vital air or the light of heaven, it is such as seems needed by all and is suited to all. The members of the Government thus assume their rights from the sovereignty of the people, which sovereignty they recognise, and do not depend for their legislative honours upon their genealogies, or upon property qualification. Discarding all such distinctions and advantages (common to the old feudal governments of Europe), America declared that she would regard with equal kindness, not only all her children, but all the numerous offspring of the family of man. "All men," says the preamble to her constitution, "are created equal,—are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, and among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

The House of Representatives reflects literally and emphatically the sentiments of the people; and in the people, as we have seen, is the only source of legislative vigour. The Govern-

ment are not afraid of any inundation of democracy that may overflow them; they justly think that that public which does America's work, and produces America's wealth, ought to have its fair and honest share of congressional representation. But while no chasm exists between the Government and the people, a high and substantial power is exercised over them by the Senate.

The Government of the United States (always excepting its monstrous and anomalous treatment of the slave population and people of colour,* with its mania for territorial aggrandizement) is based on principles of equal right and privilege. Every man has a claim to distinction, to honour, and to office, when he can found that claim on his own merits, and on the virtues of his life. It is a system which promotes the general interests with the smallest possible injury to particular ones.

Equal rights and brotherhood vindicated by her philosophers, preached and proclaimed by her greatest orators, and sung by her poets in their highest seasons of inspiration,—her statesmen were constrained to frame laws and institutions which reflected these conceptions. Such was the combination of circumstances after the termination of the war of independence, that the creation of a Monarchy would not only have been difficult, but in all probability impossible. Society possessed no materials out of which to create a king, nor any elements for the construction of a privileged order of aristocracy or a dominant hierarchy. The latter was an impossibility, not so much from the diversity of religious opinions, as from the stern liberal principles of the majority.

"I consent to this constitution," said Franklin, "because I expect no better; and because I am not sure it is not the best. The opinions I have had of its errors I sacrifice to the public good." Time has confirmed the judgment of the sage.

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* Slavery is a system that early disfigured their Commonwealth, and still continues the disgrace and scourge of the Southern States. When the Government sent a special envoy to Hungary during the recent troubles in relation to Kossuth and his compatriots, the minister of that country sent a severe and cutting remonstrance to the American government on the subject. This being replied to on the part of the Americans with a boast of their determination to uphold free principles, was met by a rejoinder on the part of Austria, that America, of which so large a proportion consisted of slaves, did ill in upbraiding Austria with being unfriendly to freedom, seeing that no such tyranny as the system of buying and selling human beings existed in that country.

The people during the war having found out their value in the body politic, would no longer be regarded as mere machines. Feudalism could no longer assign to different classes the position which each was to occupy in the social scale. The gradations of rank were no longer respected: the *man* took precedence of the *noble*, and artificial distinctions naturally gave place to those which were more rational and real.

Thus the political establishment of America, while it restrained the civil disbursements by an admirable and praiseworthy economy, was evidently well adapted to the peculiar genius of her people. The United States were found to contain the elements of a federal constitutional government, and it was adopted. As already observed, this form of government may have had its defects; and instances have occurred in which it has been shown imperfect. The social organization of a limited monarchy may present enjoyments and a mode of life better adapted for the refined, the wealthy, and the intellectual people of England, but not, perhaps, for the American in the infancy of his political existence. His very outbreaks, it may be said, have proved to be the result of progress. In a free country there is often much complaint with little suffering; in a despotism there is much suffering with little complaint. At the same time, no kind of government can be organized at once. The federal constitution was a grand political phenomenon. Almost a whole continent, composed of the most discordant elements, constituted as a federative republic, and having, like one of the mighty trees of their forest, shot forth and developed itself in solid trunk and goodly branches, America has solved one of the greatest of all political questions by exhibiting to the world the interesting fact, that entire political liberty is perfectly compatible with order and with union,—and not only with personal liberty, but with all those higher ideas that are connected with the conservation of law, of reverence, of loyalty, of rational submission to right authority,—in a word, of true self-government,—the positive antithesis of the government of self.

It proves that nationality depends not on language, nor on rule, but on institutions. The only danger that exists is, lest the love of liberty should, as in ancient Rome, be supplanted by covetousness and ambition,—lest so exclusive a regard should be paid to the creation of wealth as to neglect its proper distribution,—an evil equally fatal to national prosperity.

Government here does not seem to need the array of power

and magnificence that prevails in other nations. Here are no brilliant courts,—with an absence of nobility, there is no military pomp,—no guards of soldiers,—no hosts of spies,—no vexatious regulations of police. The law being simple and direct, it accomplishes its beneficial purposes by a few unarmed judges and civil officers; while it operates so silently that the people enjoy its blessings without a thought of its existence.

Every stranger, too, is eligible, at any time, to become a free and equal citizen, and pursue his calling or profession, of whatever kind, without any obstruction or difficulty from corporation rules, or monopolizing companies, or the payment of money to the public.

At the termination of two years every stranger has the title of a citizen, and is entitled to an elective franchise; he has a vote in the election of the President, and in that of the Governor, both in the city and state of his locality; while he is himself eligible in seven years to a seat in the provincial and general congress.

All classes enjoy a peculiar felicity in the principles of government, and of civil and religious liberty, which are more sound, more accurately defined, and more exclusively reduced to practice than those of almost any other nation. In the expressive words of Miss Martineau, "It is a government embodying the mighty principle that politics are morals."

Although, however, equality among its citizens is so universally recognized and enjoyed under the laws of America, it must not be understood that it is equality of property and power,—it must not be supposed that there are no gradations in society.

The equality here is not so much equality of social position, as of political, civil, and religious right.*

By whatever form or name a nation should think proper to distinguish its Government, and how rigid soever might be its system of equality, there would always be, as long as the rights of property are respected, an upper, a middle, and a lower class. Thus in America, from the settlement of the Republic, notwithstanding the abjuration of all aristocracy, this division has existed. In a state of society organized like that in America, while none are debarred the rights and blessings of the constitution there must necessarily be distinctions of property, diversity of condition, subordination of rank, and a variety of occupation.

* Captain M'Kinnon's Atlantic and Transatlantic Sketches.

Equality, in the acceptation of the term as recognized by the Government of the United States, does not affect the distinctions of social life. When it provides that the law regards all ranks alike, it certifies the very existence of distinctions, but only in accordance with the nature of things, and as subservient to the general good. Liberty is not synonymous with personal independence. The annals of the world conclusively demonstrate the impossibility of perfect social equality, or of complete personal independence in communities of human beings. The unrestrained will of the savage of the forest can exist only in his solitude; but the eternal discord of human passions forbids the irresponsibility of conduct and action in the intercourse of man with man, because humanity, industry, probity, and wisdom, are so unequally distributed among mortals.

"The equality of capacity, influence, and power between man and man," says a late political writer, "is a natural impossibility, and has never been dreamt of in any political scheme conceived out of Bedlam."* But the denial of artificial elevations and depressions, and the leaving men to find their places according to their circumstances,—unbolstered with privileges, or unshackled with badges of arbitrary distinction,—is a true equality of the Constitution. It must be admitted, however, that in the absence of hereditary honours, opulence and refinement create distinctions; but these, in the United States, are simply respected, not worshipped. Those great men who originated the Constitution, who for the most part had served the State gratuitously, and who were independent landed proprietors, formed, in reality, an aristocracy which it was difficult not to consider as such; and although in the incipient stages of the Government they were in a minority, they had influence in the legislature, in the conventions, and afterwards in the congress, corresponding with their wealth, virtues, intellect, and position. These, in process of time, formed two parties,—the Federal or Aristocratic, and the Democratic,—which exist to the present day. "One party," says Jefferson, "fears most the ignorance of the people; the other, the selfishness of rulers independent of them."

At the same time, with such elements of control and organization, exerting their influence over the whole body, added to the general feeling with respect to the Government, it is not

* Dublin University Magazine, Nov. 1855.

surprising that the social and political condition of the people should present a compactness and unity which make them both important and formidable.

Thus union, order, and progress, would seem to be the national motto; and these move hand in hand together, and produce steady, beneficent, and national results,—the growing cultivation of those civilizing influences to which reactionary despotisms, such as that of Russia, are the great antagonists. These results, however, have been denied by Captains Hall, Marryatt, and others; but, says one of the greatest writers of the age, Mr. Charles Dickens, "The most zealous enemy of innovation must admit the gradual progress of experience, however he may oppose hypothetical temerity." The river which dashes over the cataract, or is suddenly swelled by its tributary streams, soon resumes its accustomed course; and we judge of its general character, not by its accidental deviations, but by its ordinary tenour, by its gentle and easy flow over the obstructions which present themselves, or by its impatient struggles and ruffled surface when impeded by innumerable obstacles.

But whatever may be the defects of the system of government of the United States, it is a fact not to be disputed, that the attachment of the people to it is strong and universal. However the public press may ridicule the acts of individuals, there is nothing that can bring the laws, or those who administer them, into disrespect; and this is regarded by all unprejudiced writers as one of the strongest proofs of the nationality of the people; as well as renders, for some time to come at least, the maintenance of the present form of government more certain than that of any government on the surface of the earth. Its stability thus rests on the universal will of the nation. Says the celebrated Sir William Jones:—

"What constitutes a State?
Not high rais'd battlements, or labouring mound,
Thick wall, or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crown'd;
Not bays, and broad arm'd ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, proud navies ride;
Not starr'd and spangled courts,
Where low-bred baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No,—Men, high-mettled men,—
Men, who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing dare maintain,
Prevent the long aim'd blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain,—
These constitute a State."

So far as the system of government, as well as other circumstances in the United States are concerned, to the extent at least to which they have been thus detailed, the author flatters himself that it must be seen by the reader that little is left to be desired by the wise and liberal of mankind. But, as already indicated, these advantages of the American Government, like those of the ancient republics of Greece and Rome, are invidious and partial. "The citizenship does not take up the whole community, but leaves outside the pale of the constitution a certain portion of the population, who are not only imperfectly protected, but are not allowed to feel the throbbings of nationality."*

Allusion is made to her "domestic institution," as it is called,—to her slavery,—that monstrous plague-spot upon her social and moral greatness,—that disgrace and scourge of her southern provinces. While the roar of her cannon on every anniversary of her independence is heard from a thousand hills, and the air is filled with her shouts and huzzas for liberty, three millions of her subjects are denied the precious boon, and doomed—themselves and their posterity—to drag out their lives in perpetual bondage. Though Congress have solemnly declared, in the face of the world and before the God of heaven, that freedom is the rightful inheritance of every son and daughter of Adam, yet they continue in the true spirit of Pagan tyranny to withhold it from those upon whom the wickedness of their remote ancestors rivetted the fetters of slavery.

Between three and four millions of men, of the same common origin, of the same form and delineation of feature with themselves, because clothed with a darker skin, are thus robbed of their whole rights as human beings, and doomed by their rulers to cruel, ignominious, and interminable bondage.

The institution of slavery is at the bottom of everything questionable in the policy of the Government,—everything wicked,—everything foolish,—everything impolitic,—everything mischievous, done by the Congress of the United States for a long course of years. Every political change, every unaccountable new law, should be studied by the baleful light of this institution, and all will be intelligible. It is an institution—itself a disastrous remnant of barbarism—that makes the whole nation barbaric in many of its aspects. Apart from that, the

* Merivale on Civilization. Eclectic Review.

national testimony of England and the free states of Europe have ever been fully and freely borne to the principles of political liberty and justice in the United States.

"Americans! plead for the rights of mankind,
For the bondman as well as the free;
Unrivet the fetters of body and mind,
'Neath the shade of your liberty tree."

But your vassals, goaded to a fast coming crisis by the Fugitive Slave Law, and by your insatiate ambition of increased slave domination in attempting to add two other slave States* to the number of your Stripes and Stars, begin to plead their own cause. Let us hear them!

"We owe allegiance to the State,
But deeper, truer, more—
To the sympathies that God hath set
Within our spirits' core.
Our country owns our fealty;
We grant it so, but then,
Before man made us citizens,
Great Nature made us men.

"God works for all. Ye cannot bem
The hope of being free
With parallels of latitude,
With mountain-range, or sea.
If man before his duty
With listless spirit stands,
Ere long the Great Avenger
Takes the work from out his hands."†

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* Kansas and Nebraska.
† Lowell.

CHAPTER VII.

LAWS OF THE UNITED STATES.—Improvement on those of England. Liberty of the press. Naval and military establishments. American deficient in the qualities of a military nation. Her advantage in cultivating the arts of peace. Consequences of an offensive, aggressive war-spirit to ancient republics and to Russia.

The laws of the United States are in general assimilated to those of England, and are mostly derived from them; but they are considerably modified, and in some cases improved. They have, however, no ecclesiastical law, or spiritual courts in America, but simply common and statute laws. The law of primogeniture and entail is also abolished. Mr. Jefferson, in introducing the bill for the purpose, avowed as his reason that he wished to make an opening for the aristocracy of virtue and talent. Landed property, therefore, at least in the New England States, is universally held in fee simple, and is shared equally by the families of deceased proprietors,—a regulation to which the inhabitants attribute much of their prosperity, and which they value as the safeguard of their liberty.

In the courts of law in the United States, no one is obliged to take an oath; with the motives of religion, public opinion, and penalties of the law, affirmations are found to be sufficient; thus showing that oaths are unnecessary for the purposes of justice.*

The criminal laws have undergone alterations which have rendered them in many instances more temperate and more rational than our own; consequently more consonant with the dictates of intelligent and discriminating justice. American legislators have at least partially achieved what the English parliament has much neglected,—the establishment of a grada-

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* The abandonment of oaths is now advocated in England, it being maintained that the same penalties attached to the solemn affirmation as are now attached to the violation of the oaths, the affirmation in such case becomes invested with all the binding force of the oath.—*Vide Blackstone's Com., systematically abridged, and adapted to the existing state of the law and the constitution, by Samuel Warren, Esq., D.C.L., F.R.S., &c.*

tion of punishments according to the degrees of guilt.* The criminal laws, however, are still in an imperfect condition. It has been thought by wise and philanthropic men, that it would have been preferable if the American States had wholly repealed the laws of English origin, instead of attempting improvements on them, and thus commenced a new structure of criminal jurisprudence on a basis more in accordance with the principles of religion and humanity.

Originally, as in England, from which they were derived, the penal laws, from their rigour and intricacy, may be truly said to have "rained down snares upon the people;" the lawmakers appearing to have been emulous of the ensanguined and execrable laws of Draco, which the Athenians erased from the books of their republic, but saved the name of their author from oblivion, to float it as a warning down the stream of an odious immortality. In many of the States where, under the British rule, the forgery of a promissory note of one shilling was a capital crime, the punishment of death is entirely abolished, as it is also for all minor felonies.† If blood be shed in any of the States, it is only in instances where the last degree of malignant atrocity braves both Divine and human laws, and makes the existence of the offender incompatible with the safety of the State.

Mr. Livingstone's Code of Louisiana, which has entirely departed from the ancient system, approaches nearer to excellence than any of the most approved editions of the original model, as it abolishes the punishment of death in *all* cases, even for *murder*, substituting imprisonment with hard labour; as has also been done in the State of Vermont; and sought for, if not accomplished, in Pennsylvania, and elsewhere. And public sentiment, in all the States, is daily growing in favour of the abolition of all capital punishment in their penal code, it having been proved that it may be done not only without disadvantage, but to the improvement of morals, and the better protection of property and life. It must be admitted that the state of morals in every country greatly depends on its system of criminal jurisprudence. Sanguinary and vindictive punish-

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* As evidence of this, as also of the defects and oppressive character of English law still in many points, *vide* Warren's Blackstone, &c.

† Comparative view of the punishments annexed to crime in the United States and in England, by J. Sidney Taylor, A.M., of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law.

ments are regarded by all judicious and philanthropic men as a violence to reason, a reproach to morals, and an impediment to civilization.

More than that of any other country, the criminal laws of the United States are built upon the christian principle of the reformation of the offender. They are framed, indeed, with a greater disposition to allure to obedience than to punish for offences; they are not characterized by that excessive severity and rigour which mark the statutes of some countries, claiming even a higher status of civilization. There is in the laws generally of the United States, more of the forbearance, the tenderness, and the clemency of a christian nation. At the same time, the American statesmen, unlike those of England, have not retained on their statute book obsolete laws that have outlived the exigencies which had called them into being, or allowed them to remain mixed up with enactments of a benevolent and useful character.* They likewise seem to act upon the opinion of Beccaria, that no Government has a right to punish its subjects unless it has previously taken care to instruct them in the knowledge of the laws and of the duties of public and private life; thus making the science of government a branch of popular education. What an example to England and her colonies!

While the penal code of the United States is thus less sanguinary and cruel, there are few countries where justice can be obtained at so little trouble and expense. In relation to the protection of the person, it is believed that the law in the United States is more stringent than in England and her colonies. All persons guilty of aggravated assaults are punished with heavy fines; whilst the damages are recoverable, not by the Government, but by the parties on whom the injuries have been inflicted. The laws of security are comprised of statutes which repress crimes, misdemeanours, and contravention of the police.

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* The great Bacon, in the reign of James I., sagaciously observed, in relation to the anomalies of the English legal system, that the "living die in the arms of the dead." A revision and reconstruction of the laws of England, ecclesiastical and civil, both of which are a disgrace to the nation, have been judged necessary through three centuries, but are yet comparatively unattempted. The necessity for reform, indeed, has been admitted from generation to generation, and was attempted in the reigns of Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and in those of other monarchs in succession; yet the reformation, in many particulars, remains unaccomplished to the present day.

In no country in the world is the liberty of the press,—that great bulwark of rational as well as individual freedom,—so universally recognised and understood. It is considered an essential element in the American Constitution. Without it their representative government would be but a solemn show, unreal, empty, and delusive. The free discussion of all political measures, and of the character of public officers, is regarded of much more importance than the freedom of debate in legislative assemblies. Without such restraint, Government would almost necessarily become an instrument for enforcing oppressive measures.

The framers of the American Constitution knew, by the history of Europe, and in particular by that of England during the dynasty of the Stuarts, whose tyranny brought the country to the lowest point of imbecility and degradation, that the expedients of despotism to maintain its power, however they may succeed for a time in breaking down the barriers of popular freedom, and in suppressing elements of social greatness and enjoyment, are the very means by which it is ultimately destroyed. They knew that if the sentiments of a nation could not pass current among themselves by the usual medium of communication, a free press, they would be known by a kind of freemasonry, the key of which would be withheld only from the despotic rulers whose overthrow it would soon accomplish; they knew that if ebullitions did not find expressions in open and public discourse, they would smoulder in secret till they burst forth with volcanic and irrepressible fury; they knew that if religion was interfered with by the civil authority, and the devout of every class but a dominant party were refused a sanctuary and a pulpit for the maintenance and diffusion of their principles, devotion would be sublimed by persecution into a fervid, fearless patriotism, that would not fail to demolish the Government and altars that were opposed to its course.*

* When four Puritan ministers stood abashed before the triumphant Bishops, the ribald Royalty of England, and a right merry and conceited Court, insulted, discomfitted, outraged—the representatives of the reform convictions of the age, treated with scorn dishonourable to their manhood common to all—there was playing about that kingly court, a sedate and princely boy, some three years old.—and in the then future, beyond the scene in which the palsy-stricken Whitgift, menaced with a liberal Parliament, desiring rather to give an account of his bishopric to God than exercise it among men, lay stretched in his palace on the bed of death, and on being visited by the king, uttered his last words, lifting up his eyes and hand, *Pro Ecclesia Dei*;—beyond the scorned grave of Bancroft, and after James had become

The liberty of the press in America is not treated as a mere question of political expediency. Washington, and even Jefferson, were evidently influenced by higher motives; they had respect to the rights of conscience and liberty of thought, which they regarded as far superior to the highest considerations of a merely political character.

As some evidence of the liberty of the press in the United States, as well as of the degree in which it is protected, the laws against its licentiousness are precise and well defined. They punish only what is really injurious to the public welfare; particularly attacks upon the Government,—upon the credit of the Republic,—upon the reputation of individuals, and whatever is subversive of good morals and religion.

"The preamble of the New York Constitution," says Judge Jay, "declares as follows:—'We, the people of the State of New York, do establish this Constitution. The Constitution ordains that every citizen may truly speak, write, and publish his sentiments on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of

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pursy and fat, and, much despised and little regretted, all his revellings over, this poor ludicrous despot had ceased to roll his unwieldy body in loose stuffed quilted clothes thick enough to resist a dagger, ceased to stammer insults with a tongue too big for his mouth, and retired, not without suspicion of poison, to his last home; —beyond all these things there was, connected with that conference and that young boy, an historical event in the darkness of the coming time, over which the light of the present passed for an instant,—a silent crowd before Whitehall, a scaffold, a masked headsman, and a dethroned king kneeling before a block;—the Whitehall tragedy was the insults of Hampton Court, transmuted by the wrath of a people into retribution. Reynolds having requested the revival of the meetings of the clergy called *Prophesyings*, James answered that they tended to a Scotch Presbytery, which agreed no better with monarchy than God with the devil "Then," said he, "Jack, and Tom, and Will, and Dick, shall meet, and at their pleasures censure me and my council, and all our proceedings. Then Will shall stand up and say, It must be thus. Then Dick shall reply and say, Nay, marry, but we will have it thus. And, therefore, here I must reiterate my former speech, *Le Roy s'avisera*. Stay, I pray you, for one seven years before you demand that of me: and if you find me pursy and fat, and my windpipes stuffed, I will perhaps hearken to you." One of the courtiers, seeing the Puritan advocates were put out and abashed by the king, remarked, doubtless wittily, "a Puritan was a Protestant out of his wits" James informed a correspondent that they fled him so in argument, that "I was forced to tell them, that if any of them, when boys, had disputed thus in the college, the moderator would have fetched them up, and applied the rod to their ——." Gentle reader, the royal word is a plain one, and was suggested doubtless to the recollection of his majesty by his early experience of the instructions of George Buchanan. He closed the conference by remarking, "If this be all they have to say, I shall make them conform themselves, or I will harry them out of the land, or else do worse." After this, we need not be surprised that Bancroft should fall on his knees, and thank God for a king, "as since Christ's time the like had not been."

that right; and no law shall be passed to restrain or abridge the liberty of speech or of the press.' The Constitution explains what it means by the citizens becoming responsible for the abuse of this inestimable right by providing that no man shall be convicted by a jury, on thus speaking, and writing, and publishing his sentiments, on any subject, provided the jury shall be satisfied that the matter charged as libellous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable conduct. And the Constitution of the other States is similar. This guarantee of freedom of discussion, which the people of the States have given to every citizen, extends equally to religious and political topics, and it is impossible to conceive any subject which they may not constitutionally discuss."

The Naval power, as existing in the United States, consists at the present time of probably about one hundred ships of the line: frigates, sloops, schooners, and steamers,—vessels of war of all sizes, including those of the smallest kinds, with a marine corps well trained and disciplined. The former are promoted by seniority, thereby insuring, as is considered, greater skill in the service as the result of experience, as well as rewarding bravery and talent without suspicion of partiality.

Her largest vessel of war is the *Susquehanna*, built at Philadelphia. She is thirty feet longer than the great ship of the line, *Pennsylvania*,* but not equal to the latter in breadth of beam. Her crew consists of three hundred men.†

The whole naval establishment of the United States consisted in 1853 of eleven ships of the line, fifteen frigates, twenty sloops, four brigs, two schooners, sixteen steamers, and five store ships, with others in progress of construction. From a report, however, of the Constructor of the American Navy for the year 1855, it appears that very few of these can be made immediately available for foreign sea service. It states, indeed, that the number really available for foreign sea service is only twelve first-class steamers, two line of battle ships, and nine frigates; that the sloops are of no use but for home or private purposes.

In 1856, the naval establishment of the United States was authoritatively stated to consist of sixty-four captains, seven of

* The *Pennsylvania*, the largest vessel of war that had then been constructed, was launched in 1837. She is 247 feet long, and 59 feet deep; carries 140 guns, and is 3,306 tons burden.

† Some still larger vessels are now in course of construction (1856–7).

them commanders of squadrons; ninety-seven commanders; eleven ships of the line; thirteen frigates; nineteen sloops of war; three brigs; twenty-seven steamers, of various sizes, including those being built; five store ships; two permanent receiving vessels; a naval asylum; a naval academy; and eight navy yards.

The marine corps has the organization of a brigade, and consists of thirteen captains; nineteen first and second lieutenants; and about one thousand two hundred non-commissioned officers, musicians, men, &c.

Her dockyards for the navy—the principal of which are at Boston, New York or Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington—are both numerous and extensive. The navy yard at Brooklyn is supposed to contain the finest dry dock in the world.

In the course of a few years it is probable the maritime spirit of the country will be so stimulated, that the naval power of the States will rival any in Europe. One-third of her sailors are said to have been in the British navy or merchant service. Having entered the service of the Republic, they are placed before the mast, and officered by young Americans. Since the last war, ships of the line in the United States' navy are named after states; frigates after American rivers; sloops of war after state capitals and other cities; brigs after some noted deceased naval commander; and revenue cutters after members of the cabinet. The captains of their merchantmen navigate their vessels with half the crews employed by other nations,—viz., with two men only to one hundred tons. They command high freights, and conduct their vessels with no less certainty, and with greater despatch than the English, as they invariably, whenever possible, carry a greater press of canvas than their parent rival.

A standing army being considered incompatible with a Republican Government, their effective standing military force is estimated at about 16,000 men of all arms, including about 700 commissioned officers. According to a recent communication of the Secretary of State, the standing army of the United States, in regiments, numbers over 13,000 men, of whom more than 12,000 are engaged in protecting the frontiers against the depredations of the Indians.* On an emergency, their effective

* New York Mirror.

force would amount to 150,000 men. The number of enlistments for the year ending September 20th, 1855, was 10,546; loss by death, discharge, and desertion, 5,500. The whole territory of the United States is divided into five great departments, in which there are twenty-six arsenals and ninety-eight forts, most of which are garrisoned.*

Their militia is calculated at upwards of 2,000,000. It may be said that every man in the Republic is a trained soldier, disciplined to arms. Every year calls out a new army of local soldiery from among the peasantry; they thus train the entire rustic population. America could, if necessary, bring 3,000,000 of men into the field. The profession of arms is not merely the profession of the few, but the practice, the pride, and the pastime of the many. But America has not the qualities of a military nation,—rather those of a great agricultural and commercial, of an industrial and colonizing one. War is a game which, if America is wise, Congress will not play at. Her interests are all on the side of international amity; and her national motto should be, PEACE, INDUSTRY, AND UNION. Rome was an aggressive and conquering, but not a governing nation, and she therefore fell;—she fell like Carthage, a victim to her degenerate army system.

Prompt and eager to settle every petty quarrel by invading and annexing her neighbours' territory, Rome played out her game and lost her empire. Had the Romans yielded to the Italians rather than drive them to revolt, and to have to arm Numidians and Gauls against them, no inevitable fate would have quenched Rome, and freedom, and civilization, beneath the feet of Germany. Had Pericles, the great Athenian general, made any moderate concessions to save Spartan honour, instead of at once rushing recklessly to arms, he would have saved Greece from Macedonian despotism and spoliation. The fascinating desire to possess Italy proved fatal to Carthage.† The love of conquest, like that of money, seems to grow with that it feeds upon.

America, like Russia, is invulnerable in defensive war, and would force back any invader to his dominions, a wiser man and a smaller potentate than when he left them; but should she move aggressively, she is as vulnerable as the rest of the world,

* American Almanack.
† Merivale on Colonization, from Eclec. Review.

and her defects and weaknesses would become apparent. While America is not free from foes within her territories, there is hardly one line of her frontier that is not beset with enemies. Let both America and England beware! War brings with it, too, other evils than a just retribution for pride of empire and lust of dominion.

The cost to America of her army for the last six years ending 1851, including the Indian department, is, according to official statement, the enormous sum of 66,000,000 of dollars. Let America cultivate the arts of peace, and she will not only escape a national debt, but always have a surplus revenue,—she will then continue to be rich, glorious, and free.

CHAPTER VIII.

Vast and Rapidly Increasing Commerce.—Home and foreign. Imports and exports. Tonnage. Magnificent lines of river and ocean steamers. Canals, railroads, and electric telegraphs. Naval architecture and shipping. Agricultural products. Manufactories and manufactures. Their character and variety. Principal districts in which established: Lowell, &c. Wealth of the United States. How or from what source principally derived. Its quality. General distribution. Comparative absence of poverty throughout the Union. General contentment and happiness of the working classes. Active enterprising habits of all classes. Prevailing mania for the possession of wealth.

Enjoying, as she does, the full benefits of her fertility and her situation, unencumbered by the restraints of jealous monopolies such as existed during her subjection to Great Britain, the commercial power of the United States is the second in the world.

The commercial marine of the United States is only inferior to that of England. These two great nations divide the dominion of the sea, and the carrying trade of the world.

In 1852, the number of trading vessels belonging to the United States was 1,444. Their tonnage was estimated at about half that of Great Britain, or 351,494 tons.

Within the last ten years the imports and exports have increased from 300,000,000 to over 400,000,000; the tonnage, inward and outward, from 6,700,703 to 10,591,043 tons;* the tonnage owned from 2,839,000 to 4,200,000 tons.

These facts are more than substantiated by a later estimate of an American journalist.

The total tonnage of the whole civilized world, excluding only China and the East, consists of about 136,000 vessels of 14,500,000 tons. Of this total tonnage, 9,768,172 belong to Great Britain and the United States; so that, excluding these two great maritime nations, the total commercial tonnage of the remainder of the civilized world is but 4,500,000, or less than

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* In the year ending June 30th, 1852, the imports into the United States from Great Britain and Ireland were valued at 90,628,339 dollars, and the exports to 115,569,975 dollars.—*Chambers's Journal.*

that which either Great Britain or the United States individually possess. Even France, which comes next in the scale, is insignificant in comparison, being but 716,000 tons against 5,043,270 for Great Britain, and 4,724,902 for the United States. Italy and Sardinia stand next to France, then Holland, Prussia, Spain, Norway, Sweden, &c.

The comparative entrances and clearances of Great Britain and her colonies, and the United States, in 1854, were as follows:—Great Britain and colonies, 42,503,362; United States, 40,000,000. It would appear from this calculation that the tonnage of the United States is only one-sixteenth less than that of England. This fact, when taken in connection with its present rapid increase,—the shipping of the United States within the last ten years has been quadrupled, while her population has been only doubled,—shows how short will be the time required to overbalance the advantages which Great Britain now possesses, and to place the United States first in the rank of commercial nations.*

It is, indeed, asserted that the American tonnage is now, in 1856, 5,400,000 tons, having increased 410,000 tons during the past year,—an increase larger than the whole tonnage of Spain, Portugal, and Russia combined,—and will make a fleet of 5,400 ships of 1,000 tons each, while that of England is said to be 5,200,000 tons. The number of vessels built in the United States in the year ending June 30th, 1854, was 1,774; tonnage of the same, 535,636. Total tonnage of the United States at the same rate, 4,802,902 tons; of which, registered, 2,333,819; enrolled and licensed, 2,469,083; in whale fishery, 181,901; coasting trade, 2,273,900; cod fishery, 102,194; mackerel fishery, 85,041; steam navigation, 676,607. Whole number of American vessels *entered* during the year from foreign countries, 9,455; of foreign vessels, 9,648; total, 19,103. Whole number of American vessels *cleared* for foreign countries, 9,570; whole number of foreign vessels, 9,503; total, 19,073. Crews of American vessels *entered*, men, 185,927; boys, 726; total, 136,653: crews of foreign vessels *entered*, men, 100,243; boys, 1,212; total, 101,455. Crews of American vessels *cleared*, men, 141,128; boys, 797; total, 141,925: crews of foreign vessels *cleared*, men, 98,617; boys, 1,196; total, 99,813. The

* Blackwood, June, 1854. Lon. Jour., 1856. American Paper, Philadelphia, 1856.

total tonnage of the United States, June 30th, 1855, was 5,212,001 tons; of which, registered, 2,535,136; enrolled and licensed, 2,676,864; including 859,446 in whaling, fishing, and steam navigation. British tonnage in 1854, 5,048,270 tons.*

Their commerce extends to all parts of the earth, and embraces the products and manufactures of all nations, from the barren coasts of Labrador to New Holland, the South Sea Islands, China, India, and the continents of Africa and Europe; and from the north-west region of America and the West Indies, to the isles of the Pacific Ocean and Cape Horn.

The foreign trade exhibits an aggregate of 80,000,000 of imports and exports; while no part of the world presents such an extensive inland commerce; this greatly exceeds the foreign; while the shipping in 1852 amounted to 5,000,000 of tonnage, and is annually increasing at the ratio of 300,000 tons. The value of inland imports for the year ending June, 1855, was 304,562,380 dollars; of the exports, 275,700,320 dollars. The commerce of the valley of the Mississippi alone was estimated in 1850 at the value of 439,000,000 of dollars, being double the amount of the whole foreign commerce of the nation.

The increase of lake tonnage for the year ending June 30, 1855, was a fraction less than 19 per cent.

A greater amount of tonnage enters and clears on the lakes between the United States and Canada, than between the United States and any other foreign port.

The lake tonnage for 1855 was 345,000 tons, which, valued at 45 dollars per ton, is 14,838,000 dollars.

The present value of lake commerce (exclusive of Presque Isle and Macinac, not reported) is 608,310,320 dollars.

The value of property exposed to perils of lake navigation, is greater than all the merchandise exported from the United States to all foreign countries, or imported from all foreign countries to the United States.

The seven Lake States—New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin,—have a population of 9,784,550, while the other twenty-four States have a population of 9,708,448, leaving a balance in favour of these seven States over the twenty-four States, of over 16,000. This difference is increasing daily.

* Christian Almanac, 1857.

The value of vessels shipwrecked in eight years was 8,852,064 dollars.

Damages sustained by vessels for 1854, by St. Clair Flats, 660,146 dollars 56 cents.

From 1837 to 1855 there has been collected for revenue on the lakes, 5,511,129 dollars 98 cents. Congress in the same time has appropriated for lake harbours, 2,884,125 dollars, leaving a balance in the United States treasury, as received from lake commerce, over and above what has been taken from the treasury to benefit the lakes, the handsome sum of 2,627,004 dollars 98 cents. Deduct the cost and expenses of the lake light-houses for the same time, and the treasury still has a balance of over 1,000,000 dollars.

Steamships navigate and throng all the principal rivers, canals, and bays, amounting to 400,000 tons, and are claimed as an American invention. Even the bosoms of the remotest lakes are whitened with the sails of commerce. The smoke of the passing steamboats is seen rising in columns among their green islands and the fairy settlements upon their banks.

The Mississippi and its tributaries alone are traversed by upwards of 600 steamboats, all of which make several voyages a year; whilst the magnificent Hudson, the first great link in the stupendous chain of inland transport, gives access to regions more magnificent still, and pours forth its tide to the remotest districts of the north-west, at the same time that it brings back in a ceaseless current the boundless wealth of the most fertile portions of the earth into the bosom of the Empire City. These are the highways of commerce for the United States, and with her lakes and shores of 5,000 miles extent, besides canals and railways, completed and under construction, from every portion of the sea coast and all parts of the interior, give to her the facilities of trade and transit to a degree unequalled by any other country in the world!

Canals are numerous; and Lake Erie, or Albany Canal, extends from Lake Erie to the Hudson,—from Albany to Buffalo,—a distance of 365 miles. The cutting of this canal cost £1,200,000. Like that of the Earl of Bridgewater in England, it is the first and most important in America, and is next in extent to the Imperial Canal in China, which opens a communication from Pekin to Canton, a distance of 1,600 miles.

The route by which the commerce of the west reaches New Orleans, its chief port of shipment, is thus described by an

American writer:—"The order in which the several collecting districts on the lakes and rivers of the interior are shown, commences with Lake Champlain, from which it extends up the St. Lawrence river and Lake Ontario to the Niagara river; thence up Lake Erie, the Detroit river, and Lake Huron, to Michilitmakinac; thence up Lake Michigan to Chicago; thence across to the Mississippi river, and down that stream to New Orleans; thus extending on a natural line of interior navigation, which has but two slight interruptions from the waters of the Gulf of St. Lawrence to those of the Gulf of Mexico, a distance of not less than 2,850 miles; upon which is employed, for purposes of trade and travel, a steam conveyance of 69,166 tons. The Ohio basin forms of itself a cross section of 1,100 miles in length, embracing simply the district on that river and its tributaries."* This is the Great Western waterway, so happily adapted to attract towards the southern ports the produce collected in Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, with their magnificent rivers.

The other canals of importance are the Northern and the Ohio, with one in progress of excavation, designed (like that of Languedoc, which opened a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean sea) to connect the whole extent of the vast western territory with the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico. At the same time that water carriage in the States facilitates the costly freight of her vessels, it may be said that the cost of transport of any heavy article from the remoter parts of England to London or Liverpool would exceed that of the same article from Chicago at the end of Lake Michigan on the western prairie of America.

The railroads built, and in progress, in 1850, extended about 10,000 miles, at a total cost of 300,000,000 dollars; increased to 13,300 miles in 1852, with ten more in progress, calculated to cost 4,000,000 of dollars. One was lately established from Lake Michigan to Rock Island, on the Mississippi, 1,500 miles in length, connecting the Mississippi with the Atlantic.

From statistical tables published during the year 1856, exhibiting the progressive annual increase of the miles of railway in the United States since 1828, it appears that there is now in the Union, exclusive of double and treble tracks,

* Mr. Senator Calhoun, in his Report to the Memphis Convention, appointed to devise means for improving navigation in the western waters.

23,240 miles of railway; which, with 2,000 estimated miles of double track, will make a total of more than 25,000 miles of iron way, or a length more than sufficient to encircle the globe at the equator. Within ten years the length has been quadrupled, and since 1850, trebled. The annual increase has been in a progressive ratio; and this increase promises to continue, there being now at least 6,000 miles in process of construction. Valuing the completed railways at 30,000 dollars per mile, the capital now invested in this interest amounts to 697,260,000 dollars.

The Americans adopted the railway almost as soon as England had invented it, and have not only given it a wider diffusion, but, importing from England a large part of their rails, construct their ways, and manage them, with less expense, with more profit, and with lower charges, than is customary in England.

The railroad that connects the eastern and western parts of Pennsylvania, bringing the towns of Lake Erie and the Great Western rivers into direct communication with Philadelphia and the Atlantic, is carried over lofty ridges of the Alleghany Mountains by a series of inclined planes. These are five in number, and the summit of the highest is 2,600 feet above the level of the sea. The trains are dragged up each incline by a rope attached to a drum worked by a stationary engine. They are drawn across the plateaux which intervene between the inclines, in some cases by horses, in others by locomotives. A new road, however, is being constructed, which will cross the mountains by one long winding incline. The ascent will be so gradual in its circuitous course, that a locomotive will be able to ascend and descend with its train of carriages. It is calculated that four hours will be saved by the substitution of this new route, and dispensing with the stationary engines.

"If we survey the map of the United States," says an able American writer, "we shall find that the terminations of these lines, at both ends, rest at the principal commercial towns of the country, both in the east and west. The principal terminus of each track upon the Atlantic sea-board may be found in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah. From these grand points of shipment the railroad tracks run across the interior, and intersecting in their course the most prominent villages and cities, terminate at the grand

marts of western commerce and the shores of the navigable rivers."*

The country is also threaded with numerous post-roads or mail routes, the aggregate length of which is 200,000 miles,† and constructed at a cost of 400,000,000 dollars; in addition to which about 10,000 more miles are in progress; while it is still more closely united by a yet greater length of telegraphic wires. By means of the latter, a message can be sent hundreds of miles for a shilling, and the merchant at New Orleans can in the same day charter ships at New York or Boston, and order their cargoes from St. Louis or Cincinnati; while the orator, by the same instrument, addresses at one time audiences in all the large cities of the Union.

According to Mr. Whitworth,‡ the most distant points connected by electric telegraph in North America are Quebec and New Orleans, which are 3,000 miles apart; and the network of lines extends to the west as far as Missouri, about 500 towns and villages being provided with stations.

There are two separate lines connecting New York with New Orleans,—one running along the sea-board, the other by way of the Mississippi, each about 2,000 miles long. Messages have been transmitted from New York to New Orleans, and answers received, in the space of three hours, though they had necessarily to be written several times in the course of transmission.

When the contemplated lines connecting California with the Atlantic, and Newfoundland with the main continent, are completed, San Francisco will be in communication with St. John's Newfoundland, which is distant from Galway but five days' passage. It is therefore estimated that intelligence may be conveyed from the Pacific to Europe, and *vice versa*, in about six days; while the Atlantic Telegraph, now near its completion, will shorten the time requisite for this purpose to the once incredibly narrow limits of twenty-four hours!§

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* Mr. J. H. Tauman, quoted from Blackwood, June, 1854.

† Report of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1853.

‡ Mr. Joseph Whitworth, one of the British Commissioners sent to the New York Exhibition in 1854.

§ It is said that, "Not many years since a noble British minister deemed steam navigation to America so perfectly preposterous as to induce him to engage to eat the boiler of the first steamer that crossed the Atlantic. Had the electric telegraph to France been suggested, the whole Cabinet Council would perhaps have also engaged to eat the wires and cables which conveyed the electric fluid across the channel." But what would have been said and pledged at such a time had such a project been proposed as that of the Atlantic Telegraph?

There were, at the commencement of 1854, telegraphs extending over 41,892 miles; and now one is projected to unite the Mississippi with San Francisco, a distance of 2,400 miles. Such are the great results which have sprung from the simple fact observed by Oersted, "That a magnet places itself at right angles to the direction of an electric current."

The advantages of the electric telegraph have been in no country more promptly appreciated than in America. A system of communication that annihilates distance was found to be vitally important, both politically and commercially, in a country so vast, and having a population so widely scattered. Distances are now to be measured by intervals not of space but of time, and scarcely even by this. To bring Boston, New York, and Philadelphia into instantaneous communication with New Orleans and St. Louis,—to centralise in Washington, at any given moment, information gathered from the far corners of the thirty-two provinces of the Union, is to extend throughout the confederacy bonds of the most intimate connection.*

The facility of intercourse which is thus created is one of the great elements of America's civilised strength. The rapid returns of merchandise are not more indicative of prosperous trade than the rapid inter-communication of human thought is essential to national vigour.

In all that renders naval architecture at once swift and powerful, the English will soon be equalled, if not excelled, by their transatlantic brethren. The yacht, *America*, exhibited in England during the great national Exhibition in 1851 (and which is now excelled by the still more wonderful *Black Maria*, cutter yacht of Commodore Stephens), as to naval architecture, sailing power, beauty of model, and symmetry of construction, was without a rival, outsailing all that could be brought against her in our own waters She won the race with the *Titania*, of the Royal Yacht Squadron, and thus outmatched the nautical celebrity of old England;—thus rivalled the parent country in the very energies which had hitherto given her the exclusive dominion of the ocean.

The clipper ship, *Sovereign of the Seas*, has made a passage from Liverpool to Melbourne in sixty-eight days. The new American clipper, *Donald M'Kay*, of Boston, of 400 tons, performed the voyage from thence to Liverpool in sixteen days.

* Industry of the United States 1854. Manufac. and Arts.

Her model exhibits a combination of swiftness, buoyancy, and beauty, that has never been excelled.

The first ship that entered the Victoria docks was the *Euterpe*, an American clipper of 2,000 tons. The draught of this ship, it is said, would have prevented her admittance into any other dock in London.

In no branch of industry has greater energy been displayed, and by no people have finer models and better workmanship been produced, than in the United States, in relation to naval architecture.

In 1828 there were but 15 steamboats enrolled in the United States; from 1826 to 1830 there were 196 built; from 1831 to 1835 there were 297; from 1836 to 1840, 538; from 1841 to 1845, 620; from 1846 to 1850, 965; from 1851 to 1855, 1,200. It is supposed that there are now in existence in the United States about 1,700 steamboats, allowing the average duration of a steamboat to be about seven years. The steamboat tonnage enrolled on the Ohio river is 144,473 tons; on the residue of the Mississippi valley, 129,050 tons; on the lakes, 106,154 tons; on the Atlantic seaboard, 261,283 tons; on the Pacific, 14,270 tons; showing that the steamboat tonnage of the Mississippi valley, including that of the Ohio, is greater than that of the Atlantic coast.

Their steam and other packets are pronounced the finest fleets of mail-boats that ever traversed the ocean. The *Isaac Newton* steamer is the largest river steamer in the world, being 333 feet long by 40 wide. From the expensiveness and splendour of its construction, the gorgeousness and profusion of its decorations, and the many appliances with which it is provided to charm the senses and to dissipate the *ennui* of travel, it may be justly designated a floating palace, and forms an appropriate introduction to the enchanting views that await the stranger in his excursion up the Hudson. The saloon of this magnificent vessel is gorgeously decorated with mirrors, carved work, and furniture of elegant manufacture, and is one hundred yards in length. The splendour of this vast vaulted apartment, with its huge mirrors and rich and profuse gilding, dazzles the sight of the beholder. Among the largest ocean steamers are the *Monumental City* (lately lost between Melbourne and Sidney), *Washington*, *Hermann*, and *Franklin*, sailing from New York to London; the *American*, the *Arctic*, the *Baltic*, the *Atlantic*, and the *Pacific*, to France and Belgium, of the Collins',

with others of the Cunard line, which sail between New York, Boston, Liverpool, and London; together with the Chagres line (Howard and Son's), which no ships can surpass in swiftness, elegance, and magnificence.* Even the ancients, endeavouring with the imagination to form a craft worthy of Neptune, their god of the ocean, never conceived of a car so magnificent as one of these to be driven a thousand steeds in hand. *Argo*, the miraculous epic ship, built by the fabled sea gods, sinks to an insignificant river-boat in comparison.

Possessing so vast a range of surface and of temperature, the agriculture of the United States, as may be supposed, is wonderful in its extent. It is, indeed, the grandest that can be conceived, and is competent to supply all the demands of the vastest commerce that could be prosecuted. It is the spring of her commerce, and the parent of her manufactures. About two-thirds of her population are engaged in agriculture. The productions are much the same as those of England, excepting those of the southern States. The mode of cultivation is also similar, only less neat and scientific. Where land is so abundant, and the soil so prolific, it is considered far more profitable to bring new forest lands successively into cultivation than to adopt the scientific processes of Europe.

The north-eastern or New England States of the Union are generally devoted to grazing, the dairy, and the cultivation of rye, barley, oats, flax, and hemp; the middle and western, produce wheat, maize, or Indian corn; and the southern, cotton, tobacco, indigo, rice, and sugar.

The chief general exports are potash and pearlash, cotton, flax, dried and pickled fish, whale oil and whalebone, wheat and Indian corn or maize, molasses, tar, turpentine, rum, tobacco, furs, staves, shingles, planks, boards, and timber in general, with sheep and cattle. The north-western States, each separately of greater extent than England, are now engaged, in addition to all the cereals, in the increased production of beef, hams, and cheese, for the supply of the English market; while masses of Californian gold and New Jersey zinc have enriched their contributions to the markets of the Old World during the last few years.

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* The steam vessels from Boston to Liverpool are *America*, *Europa*, *Niagara*, *Canada*, *Hibernia*, *Britannia*, *Caledonia*, *Cambria*, and *Arcadia*. Vessels of Howard and Son's to Chagres are generally but six days from New York to Jamaica.

The following are some of the estimates of the agricultural products of the United States for 1855:—Indian corn, 600,000,000 bushels, valued at 360,300,000 dollars; wheat, 165,000,000 bushels, valued at 247,500,000 dollars; oats, 170,000,000 bushels, valued at 68,000,000 dollars; rye, barley, and buckwheat, 30,000,000 bushels, valued at 24,740,000 dollars; potatoes, 110,000,000 bushels, valued at 41,250,000 dollars; beans and peas, 9,500,000 bushels, valued at 19,000,000 dollars; clover and grass seed, 1,000,000 bushels, valued at 8,000,000 dollars; hay and fodder, 16,000,000 tons, valued at 160,000,000 dollars; cotton, 1,700,000,000 pounds, valued at 136,000,000 dollars; tobacco, 190,000,000 pounds, valued at 19,000,000 dollars; sugar cane, 505,000,000 pounds, valued at 35,350,000 dollars; garden products, 50,000,000 dollars; orchard products, 25,000,000 dollars; pasturage, 143,000,000 dollars. It is also estimated that there were 21,000,000 horned cattle, value 420,000,000 dollars; 5,100,000 horses, asses, and mules, value 306,600,000 dollars; 32,000,000 swine, value 160,000,000 dollars; 23,500,000 sheep, value 47,000,000 dollars; poultry, value 20,000,000 dollars; slaughtered animals, value 200,000,000 dollars; 500,000,000 pounds of butter and cheese, value 75,000,000 dollars; milk, exclusive of that thus manufactured, 1,000,000,000 gallons, value 100,000,000 dollars; 60,000,000 pounds of wool, value 21,000,000 dollars; 16,000,000 pounds of honey and beeswax, value 2,400,000 dollars.

Slave labour is chiefly employed in the southern, and in some of the western States. Cotton gives annually 3,000,000 bales, of which, if we may rely on the last census, not less than 700,000 bales are consumed in the country. Tobacco yields its 170,000 hogsheads, and sugar, which is of recent introduction as a staple product, is of similar amount. Such is the capacity of the country for bread stuffs, as to baffle all attempts at calculation.

While the agricultural population of the American Union have been thus led to extend the area of their labours, and to lay under contribution new and vast sources of wealth,—while enterprise has succeeded so signally in directing all natural advantages to the promotion of inland and foreign commerce,—its abundance of water power has been seized upon for manufactures of every description. Machinery of the most perfect kinds has been applied to all imaginable processes—economizing labour, facilitating locomotion, and aiding in surmounting those difficulties which

have ever impeded the progress of young nations. The gigantic power of steam has nowhere been more abundantly and usefully employed—in the mine and in the mill, as well as on the rivers and on the lakes, the canals and the railroads; doing the work of millions of hands and of human and animal sinews, yet without creating a surplusage of labour in the market, or diminishing at all perceptibly the rewards of industry in any portion of the territory. America has not only been enabled to employ profitably the natural increase that has taken place in her population, but also to absorb, without apparent effort or inconvenience, the vast tide of emigration which Europe has for years been directing to her shores.

Her manufactories are both greatly on the increase, and have become firmly established in the country. The energetic character of the people is nowhere more strikingly displayed than in the young manufacturing settlements that are springing up in the States. Large manufactories of ordnance are found, of a mixed character, in almost every town of importance in the country. The Springfield Armoury is a splendid establishment, both as to its situation and extent; as also those of Waterbury in New Haven, and the settlements of Holyoake, Chicope, Lowell, and Lawrence.* In the northern and central States there are upwards of one thousand cotton manufactories, employing a capital of 50,000,000 dollars (upwards of 10,000,000 sterling), being about a fourth part of the capital invested in this branch of the trade in the United Kingdom. There are also numerous woollen manufactories, in which from 16,000,000 to 20,000,000 dollars are invested; and these two branches alone find occupation for upwards of one hundred thousand human beings. The woollen manufactories now consume 50,000,000 of pounds of native wool, besides large imports from foreign sources,—from Turkey, Buenos Ayres, and Africa.

The Americans are in advance of the English in the character of their manufactories. The cotton mills of Lowell and Newbury Port are situate in the districts of Massachusetts and Maine. The former, which is called the Manchester of America, containing 37,000 inhabitants, and situated twenty-five miles N.W. from Boston, exhibits a moral and intellectual character on the part of the inmates and operatives, and an admirable working of the association or coöperative principle on which it is conducted,

* Industry of the United States in 1834: Machinery, Manufacture, and Arts.

with which few, if any, establishments of the same kind in England afford a parallel. The young women employed here are well dressed, perform their work in clean and neat rooms, and generally lodge at boarding-houses in the vicinity of the mills. Nearly all of them subscribe to circulating libraries, while they themselves publish one or two monthly periodicals of general literature. They also seek recreation in music, among other rational and intellectual pursuits, having, together with other instruments, a joint-stock piano.

Other important manufactures are those in leather, various works in iron and wood, together with machinery for manufactures, and for purposes of agriculture. A single State (Connecticut) makes boots and shoes, besides the manufacture of the leather, at the yearly value of £6,000,000 sterling. The manufactures in iron annually reach 600,000 tons. Machines have been lately invented for reaping, and for the manufacture of revolving fire-arms. They also make glass and wooden wares for exportation to India, South America, and the Mediterranean. Nor must the manufacture of clocks in Connecticut be omitted, not only because it is the most extensive establishment of its kind, but as deeply interesting in all its operations.

In all their manufactures, almost without exception, machinery is to a very considerable extent employed. It has recently been made to subserve the purposes of producing fire-arms of almost all kinds, of weaving seamless bags, and not only of sawing, but also of planing wood. Their inventions for working wood are numerous and important. Machinery is used in making boxes, boot-trees, lasts, ploughs, and household furniture; in stone planing, and in the manufacture of bricks. The machines used for some of the latter purposes are so effective, as to render the amount of manual labour saved almost incredible. By the operation of mechanical processes, eight men will make thirty ploughs per day, and twenty men a hundred doors per day; while bricks are made by the compression of dry earth at the rate of eight hundred per hour. The application of machinery to the development of the vast resources of the United States is unprecedented and almost universal. And in no branch of manufacture does the application of labour-saving machinery produce by simple means more important results than in the working of wood—wood being obtained in such abundance as to be applied to almost every possible purpose.

The States to which the staple manufactures are more

especially confined, are Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, New Hampshire, and Connecticut. The largest centres of manufacturing industry are Worcester and Springfield; the latter situated on the east bank of the Connecticut river. The principal of the more domestic manufactures of the United States are linen, cotton, and woollen cloths, for domestic use, as also soap, candles, wines, and maple sugar. The household articles made by the families of farmers and others in their own homes in the State of New York alone, in 1851, were estimated at upwards of £1,000,000 sterling; and in 1852, it was reckoned that no less than 7,500,000 dollars' worth of cotton was consumed in household manufactures throughout the Union. It is supposed that two-thirds of the domestic clothing, and almost every other article for household use, is supplied by each family respectively, and generally from raw material furnished by the homestead: and the late census exhibits the rapid progress of manufactures throughout the Union.

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on the 1st of June, 1850, not including any establishment producing less than the annual value of 500 dollars, amounted, in round numbers, to 530,000,000 dollars; value of raw materials, 550,000,000 dollars; amount paid for labour, 240,000,000 dollars; value of manufactured articles, 1,020,800,000 dollars; number of persons employed, 1,050,000.

In the various manufactures of wrought and pig iron, and iron-casting in the United States, according to the census returns of 1850, the total capital invested was 40,258,206 dollars; tons of ore used, 1,589,159; tons of iron, 608,460; value of raw material, fuel, &c., 27,049,743 dollars; number of hands employed, 57,284; total value of products, 54,604,006 dollars *

Among American inventions and evidences of progress in general science may be mentioned a reaping machine already noticed, which performs the work of ten men; and a lock, by Mr. Hobbs, which is considered the perfection of mechanical skill. A magnificent bridge has recently been built for the Lexington and Danville railroad over the Kentucky river, which is one span of wire from cliff to cliff—an intermediate space of 1200 feet. An organ has been lately constructed at Worcester, United States, to be worked by steam as a substitute for the

* Family Christian Almanac for 1853.

air-blast. The steam is used at high pressure, and the tones of the organ can be heard more than three miles distant.

The American Government have for some years past, at the instance and under the direction of Lieutenant Maury, of the United States' Navy, been collecting from the mercantile vessels of that nation observations of certain phenomena at sea, such as winds, tides, currents, and temperature of the ocean; and have had the results digested into charts and books, which have already been the means of adding speed and safety to their voyages in an extraordinary degree.

Wind and current charts, the results of these discoveries, have been recently published in England, chiefly based on the great work of the United States' Government, at the suggestion and under the superintendence of Lieutenant Maury; and by the suggestions and directions which such charts convey, navigators have been able to shorten their passages materially, —in many cases as much as one-fourth, in some, one-third of the distance or time previously employed. Much had been previously collected and written about the winds and currents, but general attention was not attracted to the subject, though so important to a maritime country, till the publication of Lieutenant Maury's admirable observations. A very large number of ships, chiefly American, are now engaged in observations, stimulated by the advice, and aided by the documents, so liberally furnished by the United States' Government, at the instance of Lieutenant Maury, whose labours have been most praiseworthy.*

This enterprising officer has also been for many years employed by Congress in nautical surveys and experiments, by which the attention of scientific men has been particularly called to nautical science; and, as a consequence, a large number of observers of natural phenomena, scattered over every part of the ocean, have been suddenly called into existence. Every ship-captain has been taught to profit by his opportunities, and to become a registrar of facts.

The electric telegraph has not only been employed in the United States for the purposes for which it was originally intended, but also for the determination of longitude. Successful experiments were made on the meridian of Fredericton, New Brunswick. Signals were made at that place, and at Harvard,

* Address of the Earl of Harrowby to the British Association.

in Cambridge, Boston, where the position of the observatory has been determined by the United States' Government, so that it might become the point of reference for the coast survey, in which their navy has been for many years engaged.

In America, as in England, we not only witness the triumphs of modern science, but we see further, that the distinguishing element in the one as in the other is rapidity. The most marvellous works are accomplished in an almost incredible period of time. They span rivers and valleys with structures marvellous for their strength, durability, and collossal character;—they execute some that hang in the air like threads, yet their pathway can bear the weight and simultaneous tread of a thousand men, marching in serried array. These Titanic accomplishments, and the celerity with which they are executed, are in some instances almost beyond belief. Almost as soon as the execution of any design is determined on, money is subscribed, and the work is done. There is the bridge,—there is the street,—there is the ship—

"Out of the earth a monster huge."

As in England, so in America, the whole industrial world teems with wonders.

From this description it will be seen that the sources of wealth in the United States are numerous, and chiefly derived from agriculture and commerce. In respect of its amount, America is doubtless still far inferior to England; but wealth is not to be estimated by the appearances and pomps of an external civilization. The real wealth of nations consists in a free and wide diffusion of the elements of peace, happiness, and security,—in the maintenance of a wise and equitable balance between existing wants and the supply provided for them,—the non-existence of a sense of unredressed wrongs, or the sting of hourly-endured sufferings and privations,—above all, in the prevalence of a deep-rooted consciousness of the beneficent workings of those institutions and arrangements which each citizen is called upon to support; and this is the wealth of the United States.

There doubtless exist in America, as in other parts of the world, what may be called the higher class, who live amidst the adornings of civilization,—their dwellings filled with furniture that is not excelled in the vicinity of Belgrave Square; and there may be some wealthy merchants who aim to rival the

nobility of the old country in domestic elegance, and other refinements of social life.

Spacious, convenient, and costly mansions, and their rural appurtenances, are by no means rare; and some of the hotels and public edifices are on a scale of surpassing magnificence. Some of the former are of such extent as to render them capable of accommodating upwards of 1000 inmates. There is an hotel in New Jersey, on the sea-shore, occupying three sides of a square, with a total frontage of 1,318 feet, just a quarter of a mile. It has a mile and a half of verandah, and accommodates 3,500 persons.

But the country is not yet distinguished by any large amount of material splendour; luxuries are not abundant.* Nor may America, according to English ideas, be considered rich and dignified; but the whole mass of population share and participate the national blessings. In no country since the fall of the Roman empire have the masses of the people been placed in so advantageous a position as in America, not only as to the enjoyment of civil rights, but also as to a command of the material necessaries and comforts of life. Contentment and happiness are participated in by the million. Here is to the poor no hope deferred that maketh the heart sick.

The general absence of beggars in the cities and towns of America is proverbial. The Duke de Liancourt affirms that he saw but one beggar in the United States; and similar to this are the testimonies of the Earl of Carlisle, Mr. Dickens, Captains Hall, Hamilton, and Marryatt, Miss Martineau, and many more. "Through the whole prodigious expanse of this country," says Miss Martineau, in her volume on 'Society in America,' "I saw no poor men, except a few intemperate ones. I saw some very poor women. I saw no beggars but two professional ones, who were making their fortunes in the streets of Washington. I saw no table spread in the lower order of houses that had not meat and bread upon it. Every factory child carried his umbrella, and pig-drivers wear spectacles." Says the Earl of Carlisle, "In America they really have no poor amongst them; a beggar is what you never see."

Poor are doubtless to be found in the United States, but the

* "America excels England in rivers, waterfalls, railways, hotels, clipper-ships, river-steamers, daguerreotypes, reaping machines, &c."—*Times Newspaper.* [I will add, in all strictly industrial and agricultural arts.]

number is inconsiderable compared with that class in Europe generally. In Massachusetts, one only in 68 is a pauper supported by assessment; in New Hampshire, one in 200; in Connecticut, one in 150; in New York, one in 229; and in similar or lower proportions in other States; while it is ascertained that the poverty that does exist is chiefly produced by the use or abuse of ardent spirits.

What a contrast does this state of things present to the pauperism and the varied forms of social wretchedness that exist in the populous cities of Europe! Mr. Macaulay, in his History of Great Britain, tells us that those receiving relief as poor in England, in good years are as a thirteenth, and in bad years as a tenth of the population. Including Ireland, however, one in every six receives parochial relief. The annual poor rates of the kingdom are about 41,000,000 dollars; and since 1816 to 1850 it is said that the people of England paid as poor rates 1,000,000,000 dollars.

America, though not rich,—though her banks are not stored with bullion,—is prosperous and powerful. Here no handful of privileged orders secure a monopoly of the soil in the face of the claims of justice, and in utter disregard of the needs and interests of an increasing population. Generally speaking, it may be said there are no territorial nobility. Excellent lands are to be purchased, in fee simple, not only for less than the annual rent, but even for less than the annual taxes and poor rates paid in many parts of England.

Even in the frontier States, where there is still an enormous amount of undeveloped land, it may be purchased at a trifling cost; and on the slopes of the Alleghanies, extending onwards to Georgia, where numerous small farms are scattered, and where the soil will produce 40 bushels of Indian Corn per acre, it may be obtained for 50 cents per acre. It may be said, that in all except the southern States, but in the north-eastern and western States especially, land is chiefly the property of the cultivators. Leasees of farms and plantations are almost unknown. Although, as already noticed, cases of indigence are to be seen in America, as in England, occasioned by idleness and dissipation, there is not that strange connection and juxtaposition of rich and poor, wealth and poverty, as in Europe; there are not the wide differences in property which exist in old countries; there is no class of hereditary rich or poor; neither is there such marked disparity in their condition.

The most wealthy do not generally spend their money in plate and jewellery. There are few instances of such opulence as could enable its owners, without inconvenience, to lavish thousands in pictures, ottomans, and vases, or on floral conservatories and the mere embelishments of art; nor does there seem the disposition to such extravagance.

In such a country there are means of profitable outlay for every shilling of accumulated capital; and the Americans in general are too prudent a people to invest, in objects of mere taste, that which would not tend to their material wealth.

The American population may be said to be almost wholly devoted to the acquisition of wealth; not so much, perhaps, for its own intrinsic charms, and the comforts and luxuries it procures, as for the influence it confers, and its devotion to patriotic and philanthropic objects. All actual capital is kept in action, and almost all the population pursue some line of business, profession, or trade.

It is a somewhat remarkable fact that in the last census of the Union there is no return of persons enjoying independent incomes; while in the last British census, the names of persons returned in such circumstances amount to half a million.

All are in active habits, from the highest to the lowest. Everything has a fair trial, and every bias of the mind its sphere and its place of action, to the benefit of the many-sided developments of the human spirit, and without detriment to any. The inhabitants, in general, are rather gainers than spenders of money.

Americans have been stigmatised by Europeans as peculiarly characterised by an all-absorbing lust of gold; they have been called a mammon-worshipping people, idolators of national wealth and commercial prosperity, and blamed for their disproportionate estimate of those who individually possess abundant wealth and political influence and wisdom. To a considerable degree, indeed, this imputation is just. It is true, that to some extent wealth has usurped what has elsewhere been the prerogative of birth; that its creation is the grand object to which the efforts and aspirations of all are directed; and that the science which investigates its sources and reveals the most effectual means of its augmentation has secured general attention. Covetousness and ambition of power, however, no more apply to American citizens generally than to those of Europe. It is greatly to be feared that this is the governing passion of Americans,—

their besetting sin,—but worshippers of mammon are not exclusively found among them. Gold is becoming the universal Moloch,—the monster idol of the world,—and selfishness the all-prevailing passion. Even in England money over-rides everything but law, and sometimes even that is not an exception. Even in England the lust of wealth has seized almost all hearts and enslaved them, though concealed by a thousand schemes and pretexts.

If money in America is the nobility, money in England is queen, lords, and commons. Of all the passions that tyrannize over the human heart there is perhaps none that attains so permanent and boundless an influence as avarice. Sensuality is generally found to decay with decaying nature. Ambition also yields to time; but avarice is usually found to exercise its most tyrannic sway at the moment when the wretched victim is most evidently tottering on the brink of the grave. Such also is the influence of the same pitiful passion on states.

CHAPTER IX.

MANNERS AND GOVERNMENT.—Absence of expensive, costly, and civic paraphernalia, antiquated costumes, splendid retinues, and aristocratic distinctions. Character of the inhabitants of the different States. Their intimate relation to each other, and assimilation of rich and poor. Rate of wages to working men. Cheapness of means of subsistence. Their abundance. Economy of travelling. Politeness of American gentlemen towards the female sex. Rights of women. In what they consist. Extent to which recognized. The influence of the female sex on society at large. Uncharitable representations of both men and manners in America, by European Tourists. Prevailing hospitality. General politeness and urbanity of American gentlemen.

As you see in America no nobles and civil officers gorgeously arrayed, lounging in splendid carriages and luxuriating in their wealth,—the result of enormous incomes from the State,—so there are no Lord Mayor's Shows, with their gew-gaw trappings, mocking the misery of perambulating beggars; nor evidences of pinching want and squalid misery within-doors; no palaces or habitations in which an ordinary family is lost, and hovels too small for human endurance.

Property is not accumulated in a few hands, and political power confined to certain privileged orders; nor do the middle and higher ranks enjoy, in the fruits of wealth, exuberance and luxury, while large sections of the population are either entirely destitute of the means of subsistence, or earn them by unrequited toil and degradation. And the opposite ingredients in her social and political state are not only the source of the social welfare of America, but the basis on which her political institutions rest. While living is on the whole cheaper than in England, rates and taxes so inconsiderable, and wages high, among American workmen in general there is no degrading penury,—no hereditary inferiority of class. An American artisan, as well as labourer, is a superior being to one of the same class in Europe: he is not only in better circumstances as to food, but in a better position generally, having the prospect of that advancement, as the reward of industry, to which all aspire. A kind of caste exists in England, in consequence of which a labourer or artisan can scarcely ever hope to rise to the rank of a master. Even the

poorest and most intractable of the native Irish, on arriving in this country, sets to work vigorously, and strains every nerve, as if to falsify the low estimate put upon his qualities. He appears as if determined to be avenged upon fortune herself, by showing that he can dispense with her favours.

All through America (the slave states excepted), there is, as already intimated, an absence of that visible wretchedness and degradation to be everywhere seen mingled with the wealth and splendour of European cities. The whole mass of the working classes are better dressed, and appear more cleanly in their persons and attire; conveying the impression to an Englishman that England is the workshop, and America the place where its manufactures and fabrics are consumed. As far as the necessaries of life, and even material comforts are concerned, even the backwoodsman is in circumstances of comfort amidst the affluent solitudes of nature. The assimilation of rich and poor, or of the higher and lower classes of America, is also apparent with regard to the conveniences and comforts of life,—as to houses, furniture, gardens, &c. And these remarks apply with still greater truth to personal acquirements. Having mostly to live by their own exertion, and debarred from expensive pleasures, the lower classes are induced to improve themselves with unremitting assiduity; and for this they possess the most ample opportunities.

In a word, America is a country in which every human being is profitably employed,—his energies stimulated by requited labour; where every branch of industry is flourishing, and where every industrious man may be prosperous and happy. Everywhere are heard, in her cities and remotest villages, the joyful sounds of enterprising industry, the ringing music of the workman's tools and the anvil, and the ceaseless hurry of commercial occupation.

As has been already intimated, travelling and boarding are nearly as cheap again as in England; and almost all kinds of food are abundant, and obtained on very reasonable terms, although luxuries are dear. In journeying from New York to Philadelphia by water, as also in returning, including 30 miles of land carriage, the charge is 18s., including breakfast and dinner, the whole distance being 90 miles: and this is the usual rate also on the Hudson towards Albany, and throughout the Middle States. The distance from Boston to Albany is 200 miles, accomplished in eight hours; the charge five dollars. A

passage may be obtained by a packet boat from New York to Utica, a distance of 80 miles, for three dollars, being at the rate of 2d. per mile, including board. Breakfast and dinner generally on board the steam boats are 2s. 6d., and the table is supplied with everything that a moderate appetite can require. A family could reside permanently on board of one of the most magnificent of the river steamers, with a separate cabin, and every luxury of living, including a voyage of 150 miles, for 10s. each per diem.

It is said that a tourist could occupy a couple of months upon the double journey between the United States and England,—visit every State of the Union from Niagara to New Orleans, and live in comfort during his whole journey,—for a smaller sum of money than it would cost him to obtain the same amount of comfort during a two months' tour of the British Isles; and that, although the fare for the steamer, backwards and forwards between England and the States, is £30 each way, thus including the whole transatlantic voyage.

It is even stated that a traveller in the States, residing for two consecutive months in one of their principal cities, would be better provisioned and lodged for £100 sterling than he would in England for £300; and, notwithstanding all the republican bluntness and equality, be treated with far more consideration and respect.

Railway travelling is also much cheaper than in England, although wages are so high, and the rate of interest on loans is so exorbitant. The fare from Montreal to New York, 410 miles, by express, is only 16s. 8d. From New York to Boston, 336 miles, the fare is five dollars, and the rate of travelling 25 miles an hour, *en route* through New Haven, Hertford, Springfield, Worcester, and the State of Connecticut, passing along the valley of the Connecticut river. From London to Edinburgh, about the same distance, it is twice that sum in the second class. Travelling here by rail, however, is less pleasant than in England, as in parts of the country where coals are used, the passengers are liable, by defect of arrangement, to inhale the smoke, loaded with sulphurated hydrogen, proceeding from the pyritical coal in the furnace, and urged upon them by the wind.

Manners and customs are made to depend so much upon the arbitrary opinions and fashions of a particular country, that no particular standard exists by which to regulate them. A peculiar style of manners, indeed, may pass current in one country, but

be repudiated in another. According to what is generall understood by them in civilized countries, an enlightened an liberal stranger in America, especially one who had seen some thing of the continent of Europe, would see little to condemn,— a devotion to the Virginian weed and its consequences, togeth with a few peculiarities in the more public phases of social li excepted;—little that detracts so materially from the purity republican manners, as Englishmen who have never visited have been led to suppose from the journals of European tourist little more, perhaps, than he would see in England, for which could not find a reason and an excuse. While as to the virtu of private and social life in the Middle and North-Eastern Stat generally speaking, perhaps, he would find America on a p with the parent country, and in some respects its exemplar.

The various sentiments, characters, and habits of the differe European inhabitants, added to the tastes and other circum stances consequent on an original transfer of persons to differe climates and their subsequent existence in them,—all this bei taken into account; also their being accustomed to no aspects of external nature, and the subjects of sympathi generated under new modifications of social intercourse;— is but natural to expect that their character should be mark by customs and manners peculiar to their condition, and ev affecting their bodily frame and constitution. There are, indee some obvious peculiarities of character presented in almo every State; and so strong does the contrast sometimes becom as, for instance, between the cities of New York and Phil delphia, and the Eastern and Southern States of the Unio as to render a general description difficult, if not impossibl The New-Englanders are industrious, frugal, pious, patien and imperturbable. In the Middle States, Pennsylvania e cepted, where the people are of a staid and sober aspe they are, in addition to these qualities, eminently energeti In the Southern States, where slavery exists, they are generou indolent, haughty, and reckless. In the Western Stat frank, hospitable, industrious, and lovers of adventure; b at the same time, possessed of many deteriorating qualiti It may, however, be said of the North-Eastern States—Mai New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, a Connecticut, to which Pennsylvania may be added, that in ma nners and various social arrangements they possess an essential distinctive character.

There being few exhibitions for amusement, and but little time or taste for them; those who are happy enough to possess a home find their enjoyment there to be purer and steadier than that which is usually met with abroad; and those who have not a family hearth, are too much exhausted with the fatigues of the day—the ardent, stirring pursuits of business—to seek for amusement far beyond the precincts of their own domiciles, or those of their own immediate acquaintances and friends. There are few to be found in America who are driven by *ennui* to adopt expedients for killing time. More generally, it would appear, than in any other part of the world, those who are at the head of a home in the States, endeavour to make it a cheerful one, wisely judging that happy faces are the best ornament to a house; and thus their sons and daughters, except in some spirit of enterprise, seldom wish to wander from it.

Under these circumstances, theatres and places of public entertainment are but little patronised. Such inadequate remuneration and encouragement do some of the conductors of these institutions receive, that customary performances have been known to be occasionally discontinued or suspended on that account, even in some of the larger cities. Nor are the American people addicted to holiday sports, or festive celebrations. The principal out-door amusements of the sexes have been said, sneeringly, to be the bar-room and the lecture-room.

It is scarcely possible to conceive of a higher compliment, though not intended as such, than that paid to the ladies of Boston, and to American ladies in general, by Mr. Dickens, in his Notes. After speaking in the highest terms of the tone of society, he adds,—"The ladies are, unquestionably, very beautiful; but there I am compelled to stop. Their education is much the same as with us. Evangelical ladies there are likewise, whose attachment to the forms of religion, and horror of theatrical entertainments, are most exemplary. They have a passion for attending lectures, and an aversion from all innocent pleasures, resorting to chapels and lecture-rooms in crowds. There are two theatres in Boston, of good size and construction, but sadly in want of patronage." Thus, in the eyes of some persons, some of the characteristics of American society, imputed to them as faults, are closely allied to virtues. Captain Hall reflected on the ladies of one of the States because they were not present at a cattle show; and on others, because they were

so little prone to midnight jovialities. American females are eminently domestic both in their tastes and habits.

> "Man may for wealth or glory roam;
> But woman must be bless'd at home;
> To this her efforts ever tend,—
> 'Tis her great object and her end."

America, it will thus be seen, has not many charms for the voluptuous portion of mankind. It is not a place for those who have quaffed the cup of fashionable pleasures to satiety, and drained its intoxicating qualities to the dregs. Such persons can here find no excitement strong enough to stimulate the exhaustion of shattered nerves, and no attraction in novelty sufficiently keen to overcome the listless torpor of idleness and dissipation. Nor has America many attractions for the romantic, the fastidious, or the sentimental; but much for the rational, the sober-minded, and the discreet. At the same time, the defects seen by writers of extra sensibility are not peculiar to her. But, however this may be, we certainly find in the United States a delightful freedom from English exclusiveness and hauteur.

The gallantry of the old world may at least borrow something from the chivalrous homage which all American gentlemen pay to the fair sex. It is said that Americans sometimes go so far as to say that a man who contradicts a woman is not a gentleman. This gallantry, perhaps, is one of the principal elements in their rapidly growing civilization; as it is a fact not to be disputed, that where woman is most degraded and enslaved, civilization yet remains within its narrowest limits.

Europeans may learn yet another lesson in relation to the female sex, from the example of their transatlantic brethren. Among these the monogamic law is strictly observed,—the chattel idea nowhere predominates,—the Pagan custom nowhere rules,—not even in the backwoods,—in the outskirts of civilization. Here woman has at least the prospect of advancement to that condition contemplated by the Founder, and taught by the spirit of Christianity.

Whatever opinion may be formed by society at large, in either country, of the "Rights of Women,"* as advocated by societies

* "This Society appears to have originated in a well-founded impression that at least in several States, the law which governs the marital relationship of the mutual rights and obligations of husband and wife is defective; its object being to seek such alteration of the laws as will recognise the independence of a wife in

thus designated, it is evident that our American brethren have been foremost in the movement to elevate the female character, by recognizing woman's right to that place in society for which nature and Providence have designed her. They have been the first to discover that there is no such natural difference between the intellect of men and women, as to warrant the distinction that has been so long made in the mental discipline provided for them; that the dissimilarity in their mental qualities is in fact owing more to education than to nature.

They have not only learnt, but acted upon the knowledge which other nations are so slow to acquire,—that the mothers of the present generation must mould and form the men and women of the next,—that no degree of masculine cultivation can supply the deficiency of mental and physical development in women,—that it is the mother who gives the element of greatness,—that no society, no nation, can advance where the culture of all that goes to form the character of women is neglected,—and that no nation can fail of greatness where women are held in genuine respect.

The Americans recognize and promote the right of woman to such an education as will give her the full development of all her personal, mental, and moral qualities; believing that she will have no difficulty, as a consequence, in finding her own proper place in the family,—that she will not be a less notable housekeeper, or lose the central attraction of home, or lose

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the event of her being united to a dissolute and tyrannical husband."—*Chambers's, December*, 1854.—The following will illustrate the principles of the advocates of this Society:—

"WOMAN'S RIGHTS MARRIAGE.—At Worcester, on the 29th of August, Mr. N. W. Towne, of Worcester, was married to Miss Sarah C. Morrill, of Manchester, N. H., by the Rev. T. W. Higginson. As a part of the services the following protest was read:—

"Whereas, the laws of all Christian countries, relating to marriage, are founded, to a greater or less extent, upon principles of injustice and inequality, we feel in duty bound to enter our protest against the same, while acknowledging our mutual affection and the sacredness of the relation which we assume—that of husband and wife.

"We particularly protest against the laws which give to the husband the absolute control of his wife's person—

"The entire guardianship of their children—

"The exclusive ownership and use of her personal property, and real estate, unless personally settled upon her or placed in the hands of trustees—

"The absolute right to the product of her industry.

"In conclusion, against the whole law of inequality between the sexes, we claiming that the wife should be mistress of her own person and property, and have an equal share in the control of her children.

"While we reverence law, we heartily protest against oppression.

"N. W. TOWNE.
"SARAH C. MORRILL."

qualified, in any respect, for an efficient discharge of her domestic and maternal duties, for the practical management of her whole household machinery, or dispossessed, in any degree, of the fascinations of female loveliness.

Whenever true religion is actually cultivated by a well-educated and accomplished woman,—as it is very extensively in America, as well as in England,—it becomes the governing impulse of her soul; and love, and truth, and purity, are the instincts of her being. She then feels that her great mission is to conduct man to a higher condition,—a more fully developed spirituality. Thus all that is truly good and beautiful in society is attributable to her influence. She is the real originator and stimulater of human progress,—the steam-engine of life,—the great motive power of love, valour, and civilization,—capable of forming the thought, and taste, and moral sentiment of the world.

The best and the noblest men in America, with Washington and Franklin at their head, have been brought up by pious mothers, in moral and religious homes.

Misfortunes impend over any age in which woman loses her ascendancy, and in which her judgment goes for nothing amongst men. It is the last degree of depravation. All the nations that have laid claim to moral virtue have entertained respect for women. Witness Sparta, ancient Rome, and the Germans of the middle ages. At Rome, women celebrated the exploits of victorious generals,—they mourned publicly for the fathers of their country, and their vows and their lamentations were consecrated as the most solemn judgment of the Republic. Nearly all beneficial reforms, and even revolutions, have owed their origin to women. By one woman Rome acquired liberty; by another woman the Plebeians gained the Consulship, and became capable of holding the highest offices of the Commonwealth,—the Censorship, the Prætorship, and the Priesthood;* by another woman the tyranny of the Decemvirs was terminated; by women Rome, when besieged, was saved from the tyranny of a usurper and an outlaw. The influence of women embraces the whole life; theirs is a reign of love, of beauty, and of reason. Their dominion extends itself from the fireside over the whole social circle, and takes deep and firm hold on the sentiments, the interests, and the hearts of the family. Man takes counsel

* The youngest daughter of Fabius Ambustus, who married a Patrician.

of his wife; he obeys his mother,—he obeys her long after she has ceased to live; and the ideas which he has received from her become principles, stronger even than his passions. While the husband and the father is pursuing his interests abroad, the wife and the mother is imparting a cast of character to the little group gathered around her at home. Before the influence of the female sex can be annihilated, the ties of nature must be sundered, and the last vestige of amiable sensibility obliterated from the heart.

While these remarks, as they relate to the United States, may more or less apply to females in the middle and higher ranks of life, they are not altogether inapplicable to those of a lower grade in the social scale; while generally it may be said, that by the natural operation of the untrammelled laws of social and domestic life, but few women are employed in the manual operations of the field, or, if married, in the not less laborious engagements of the factory; but at home, in the performance of domestic duties.

At the same time that some English tourists have generalized the results of their scanty and hasty observations, to which may be attributed the violent philippics against American manners, directed oftentimes by irate English exclusiveness,—others could see no truth or reason in their conduct, and others, again, are under the impression that an American in England might see as much to censure or condemn there as we do in their Republic.

It is too often the case that John Bull carries along with him in his travels, especially to America, for which he has the least excuse, no inconsiderable portion of his characteristic reserve and hauteur—the result of that selfish, aristocratic prejudice, with which he is so often, and justly charged, by highly civilized foreigners; a course which can have no other tendency than to stimulate national jealousy. At the same time, the reader must not conclude that in a country where all are ambitious of equality, there are none by whom equality is sought and enjoyed who imitate the ceremonies which custom has established in Europe, as the barrier between one class of society and another.

The higher, or educated classes of America, are among the most hospitable people in the world;—their hospitality and courtesy to strangers, especially those who are properly introduced or respectably recommended, exhibit a most pleasing contrast to English churlishness and impertinence, so frequently

though not generally found in our cities and provincial towns. In relation to their hospitality, it may be said that this generous, patriarchal, and Roman virtue seems to be recognised by our brethren as in the number of the primary social duties; and as a strict duty rather than a virtue it is practised also by the Indian tribes. The custom of receiving strangers is so generally established that in the country districts travellers are hardly ever reduced to the necessity of taking up their lodgings at an inn.

To no people can the Homeric maxim be more justly applied—

Τον εκεινον παρεοντα φιλειν απεοντα επεμπειν.

"Welcome the coming, speed the going guest."

Or in their own characteristic vernacular—

"Eat freely with glad heart; fear here no dearth."

Agreeably to the eastern practice, Homer frequently inculcates the maxim that strangers are to be received as guests from heaven; and it would seem that the Americans generally approve and act out the sentiment,—

Προς γαρ Διος εισιν απαντες Ξεινοι.

Although, as in other countries, there may be found among the masses a deficiency in the minor points of etiquette and good breeding, the manners of American gentlemen are pleasing. They exhibit a sort of republican plainness or abruptness, but a simplicity withal that is quite in harmony with the institutions of their country, although it may easily be conceived objectionable to a sophisticated European. There is also a degree of inquisitiveness that we consider an infringement of the common laws of social life; but the interrogators have evidently no intention to offend,* and the custom arises from obvious natural causes,—it is the result of their original social condition,—of their present migratory habits,—and of their European connections and associations.

An American has less of artificial politeness than a Frenchman or an Englishman. He deals less in mere conventional

* The sentiment expressed by the poet Cowper should not only be that of every traveller in America, but of every private untravelled member of civil society,—

"A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not offend me, and no other can."

forms and expressions of civility. He pays fewer empty compliments; seldom acts the amiable or the courteous, makes no unmeaning or overstrained professions, but he takes you by the hand with a cordiality that at once intimates he is disposed to regard you as a friend.

Of that higher grace of manners, inseparable perhaps from the artificial distinctions of European society, and of which those conscious of its hollowness cannot always resist the attraction, few specimens are to be found in the United States. Able to distinguish between politeness, or graciousness of manner, and obsequiousness, the citizens in general exhibit dignity without servility. The haughtiness of rank is unknown, while the more opulent classes manifest a fit sense of their own position, with a proper respect for what is due to the people, to the civil power, and to society at large. If they are deficient in some of the polite observances of Europe, they are less encumbered with the formalities of an inexorable etiquette. The manners of an American gentleman are pleasing, and are more gratifying to a stranger than the farce of ceremony, however gracefully it may be performed. Nor are the gentlemen—merchants and literary and professional men of the principal cities—inferior to any in the world in extent of practical information, liberality of sentiment, or generosity of character.

In the United States, also, you may see the development of a purer and less arbitrary social life than where men are more the devotees of art and helots of fashion; retaining more of the primitive simplicity of the children of nature. "Plain and frugal in their domestic habits," says the Marquess de Chastellux, "they at the same time exhibit little of that artificial polish which, like varnish, frequently disguises very worthless materials; and a stranger is not mortified by professions without services, and show without substance. Their good qualities are of a sterling kind. Good wives,—good mothers,—prudent housekeepers,—they may bid defiance to the satirist until they quit the hallowed circle of domestic virtues to flutter heavily on the light airs of vanity. Through their affectation only they are vulnerable." Credulity, vanity, and display, are their foibles; and these have been represented as prominent traits of the national character.

"In all public establishments of America," says Mr. Dickens, "the utmost courtesy prevailed; not so in England. There is a boorish incivility about our men alike disgusting to all persons

who fall into their hands, and discreditable to the nation that keeps such ill-conditioned curs snarling about its gates. When I landed in America I could not help being strongly impressed with the contrast their custom-house presented, and the attention, politeness, and good humour with which its officers discharged their duties."

"The manners of the people of the United States," says the *North American Review*, of 1828—29, "are not generally refined, but they are very generally civil. The portion living in cities, and who travel and enjoy social intercourse, are polished and courteous. The body of our farmers and people of the interior are indeed rough in their manners, though not boorish. They have all the friendly, benevolent, and hospitable feelings; they are independent in their approaches and address to strangers; they serve you for the pleasure it affords themselves, not from the idea of gain; they everywhere respect and favour the female character."

Much has been said by transient visitors in the United States of the indecorous conduct of the people in general at meals. This may probably be seen to some extent on steamboats by travellers, and at ordinaries by men of business; but it seems a misrepresentation and a satire to say that this is characteristic of the American people. Many travellers, to whose testimony the writer can add his own, have asserted, that though they were presented with numerous opportunities for observation, they failed to see the scrambling and voracity with which they are charged.

Although customs in the United States are generally such as are found in Europe, there are some trifling deviations; and these of a kind that in the old country would appear a little singular. Hence in some of the States both married and single women are called Miss, the latter distinguished by their christian names. Very few married women wear a ring as a token of their condition, thus rendering it difficult for strangers to distinguish a married from a single female.

Weddings are often celebrated by gaslight on bright sunny mornings, but most frequently in private dwellings at eventide. It is a rare occurrence that any marriage ceremony is conducted at noonday, as in England. A female child is in general treated with more consideration than a boy,—is allowed more privileges, —dresses better,—has better food. The partiality as to dress is sometimes carried to excess. Some little girls are decked out

like people of matured growth, and become old before their time. They are thus taken out of their childhood to the destruction of their whole future.

Comparatively few of the bad social customs that prevail among the aristocracy of England, however, are seen here; such as the customs of going to bed at daybreak,—rising at noon,—taking what are called morning rides towards evening, and dining after sunset.

CHAPTER X.

PREVAILING CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL LIFE.—Personal appearance. Dress and habits of both sexes. Houses. Cemeteries. Domestic servants, their moral character, how regarded and treated. Character and circumstances of first European settlers. Moral and social state of present inhabitants. Language, comparative absence of dialects, provincialisms, &c.

Most of the original or earliest European inhabitants being descendants from English families, not only do the present race resemble their progenitors in their manners and customs, in all the general features of social life, as well as in their habits and modes of employment, but also in personal appearance and dress. There are amalgamated with the present population, however, natives both of the European and African continents, sufficiently indicating to the transatlantic visitor that the breadth of the ocean divides him from Great Britain. But although Americans have thus been formed from so many various elements, not only as to old customs, but as to climate, productions, and races, and thus to a considerable degree bear, as may be supposed, a portion of the features that distinguish each of the nations from which they have sprung (which it may also be inferred would give them in the mass a physiognomy difficult to be seized by the pencil of the writer), there is, notwithstanding, much nationality in their appearance,—an appearance marked and peculiar in many even of its physical and moral features, manifestly distinguishable from those of the same class in England, and likely to assume a still more definite character notwithstanding vast and increasing accessions of territory and population.

The men are mostly tall, straight, penetrating, and reflective; their complexion pale or saffron, of an immovable expression of countenance, and wiry in muscle; withal, active and vigorous; their external aspect accompanied by an independent carriage and bearing. They make excellent officers for every department of the state, and of the naval and military professions; eminent lawyers, good political economists, and industrious, practical men of all classes and occupations; but Americans are seldom Utopians or theorists.

In their mental character they are more independent than their transatlantic brethren; less disposed to yield to custom or fashion; they not only think, but act for themselves; they manifest less disposition than an Englishman to ask what their neighbours will say or think of them; they are less trammelled by etiquette and a fastidious refinement, which sometimes lead the latter to compromise their convictions out of complaisance to others. They are, however, extremely sensitive; not like the French, as to breaches of etiquette towards the person,—for to these they are comparatively indifferent,—but in relation to public satires on their manners and customs. Much elated by praise, they are in a corresponding degree annoyed by blame. They freely satirise themselves, but are considered weakly impatient of any even triflingly disparaging criticism from strangers; apparently forgetful that it is possible to condemn or censure many things in a nation while holding the nation itself in high esteem; and that a desire to put down free discussion, and to curtail the largest liberty of criticism, is inconsistent with their own avowed principles.

The females are generally of slender form, but of paler, less *riant* countenance than the European; though not less beautiful in form and contour of physiognomy. Some of the ladies are represented as having more exquisitely chiseled features, and more classical heads, than their fair sisters of Albion; but their figure is less perfect, being more angular, attenuated, and fragile. There are some among them, however, who in point of physical perfection are surpassed by none in any part of the world. But it is remarkable that owing, as is supposed, to some peculiarity of climate, in concert with other causes, their beauty is not durable.

In England, a woman is in the prime of her attractions at thirty-five, and she frequently remains almost stationary till fifty, or else declines gradually and gracefully like a beautiful day melting into a lovely evening. In America, twenty-five is the farewell line of beauty in woman. At this age, and sometimes earlier, the bloom of an American belle is gone; and the more substantial materials of beauty almost as quickly follow. At thirty, the whole fabric is on the decline. At the same time, the development of females is more rapid than in Europe. Girls are women at fifteen or sixteen, which may account in some degree for their premature decay.

"The ladies of America," says Dr. Latham, "early lose their

teeth. In both sexes the adipose cellular cushion interposes between the skin; and the aponeuroses and muscles disappear, or at least the former loses its adipose; the muscles become stringy and show themselves; the tendons appear on the surface, and symptoms of decay manifest themselves." Dr. Latham, and other ethnologists, attribute this early decay to the fact of their not being indigenous to the climate, and to sudden changes of the atmosphere; but a recent American author traces it to what will be considered more natural and obvious causes.

The whole system of artificial life in America offers direct defiance to the known hygienic laws; bad diet, such as a profusion of condiments, sweets, &c.,—the want of frequent ablutions,—small, close, confined sleeping accommodation,—and the incessant, dead, withering heat of red-hot stoves. "All day long," says a fair editor of a newspaper in Massachusetts, "the stove-heat burns into the brain, and withers the cheeks, and palsies the muscles, and enfeebles the step; and though summer comes, with its outer air, and its fruits and flowers, the loads it is asked to remove are too much for it; and the years circle round,—the weary, aimless, soul-consuming years,—and the bad diet, and the uncleanly habits, and the foul air, and the hot stove, have done their miserable work. Beauty is gone, health is vanished, hope is set, and the young mother, who should just begin to shed beauty, and goodness, and light around her, has shrunk, mournfully, into the forlorn, and wrinkled, and unlovely old woman."* But though thus the beauty of the American ladies is "fading as the flower, their virtues are lasting as the gem." There are to be found, however, as in our own country, some fine relics of by-gone belles; staid, intelligent, amiable, portly matrons, blooming in years,

* "From the ghastly physiognomies, indicating dyspepsia, that are so prevalent in America, especially at every watering-place, it is a question whether quick eating may not be added to the list of causes mentioned as those by which ill health and premature mortality are promoted. Chemical solutions, to be made perfect from solid materials in the proper time, require, at first, a little mechanical aid, that the greatest possible quantity of surface may be presented to the solvent power. If men would reason thus, about the faculties of the stomach, the gastric juices might perhaps have a better chance of fair play."—*Author of Excursion to the Slave States.*—"The greater portion of the Americans appear to be dyspeptic; whether principally from the dry quality of the atmosphere, the comparatively little exercise which they take, or the rapidity with which they accomplish their meals, I will not take upon me to pronounce."—*Earl of Carlisle.*

and dignified in decay, to be found nowhere but among the English and their descendants, and who are an honour to their country and their sex. It would be an indifferent compliment to say of many of them what General Lafeyette said of the mother of Washington, that "they rival the Roman matrons in the best days of their Republic." More justly may it be said, that, like Censor Cato in his old age, they "support that dignity in decay which seems to boast a triumph over time."

The style of dress of the principal inhabitants, especially that of the ladies, is assimilated to the fashions of Paris and London. But dress has become so nearly alike in all civilized countries, that its air and appearance are unsafe tests of the rank or country of those who wear it. In New York, however, as well as in New Orleans, and other large cities of the Union, men are to be seen with every imaginable costume and cut of beard, to say nothing of their forms of visage and of their unimaginable tongues. Some have evidently out-lived both their own times and tastes, and find nothing unaltered but their own domiciles. These principally belong to the Spanish, French, Dutch, and German nations. Among the ladies also, are occasionally to be seen some habited in the Bloomer costume, which, whatever disadvantage it may be said by many to possess, is regarded, perhaps, by as many more, whose minds, it is probable, are less warped by prejudice, and less trammelled by custom, as by no means wanting in good taste, and by not a few considered as elegant, modest, and convenient; its novelty and plebeian prestige being its greatest objections.

Some Dutch vrows or matrons, are distinguished, as in their own country, by their voluminous ample skirts, pallid countenances, preposterous caps, and their hair drawn tightly back from their forehead. Some of their caps are of coarse net, or coarse lace, ornamented with pink, or blue, or orange ribbon, and long ear-rings reach far below their borders. Blue stockings, and gay gowns, as though fresh from Amsterdam, complete their external habiliments.

The houses of American towns and cities, though many of them are of wood, and heavily ornamented, according to the taste of an earlier day, are of slender construction; exhibiting, however, more of uniformity of architecture, and less intermixed with good, bad, and indifferent, than in England. Nor are they blackened with smoke; but, from a taste said to be derived from Dutch ancestors, in New York, they are painted or

coloured variously,—principally white, with verandahs of green,—and thus present, generally, a clean, fresh, and agreeable appearance; at the same time they give to the streets an air of gaiety and cheerfulness which could not otherwise have been attained. But the interiors of American houses are not arranged in accordance with the taste of an European, or at least in accordance with an Englishman's idea of comfort. The bedrooms are small, the bedsteads without hangings, and the apartments often scantily furnished. The principal sitting, or dining-rooms, or those chiefly occupied, are below ground, or on the basement story; whilst the spittoon, which so fully explains a noxious national habit, is a necessary appendage to every room. Although, however, the uniformity and external appearance of American houses are in some respects an improvement on those of English cities and provincial towns, yet it is evident that neither rural nor city architecture has been much studied. Few models of the good old English style are seen, comprising every comfort of residence with the most picturesque effect. There is little attempt at embellishment, in town or country except in a few Anglo-Saxon peopled districts. Seldom is seen ivy mantling the walls, or woodbine twining round the lattice. This is a deficiency that is surprising, as it is generally admitted that a competent knowledge of the arts is no less conducive to economy and convenience than to elegance and splendour.

In connection with these observations on the style and other circumstances connected with the dwellings of the Americans, it may not be improper to notice their enlightened competition with England as to sepulchres for the dead. Cemeteries are now common in the United States, and some of them are of vast extent, as well as on a scale of great sylvan beauty. The cemeteries in America, however, seem to belong more generally to the people,—to the great mass of human beings, who can be characterised by no other name. It is with them, after all, that the sympathies of the philanthropist are more really linked than with the higher classes, who while they demand as their right, and often somewhat imperiously, the respect paid to them individually for their rank and power, chill, by these very claims, the feeling with which we involuntarily regard the sorrows of those who ask our condolence simply because they weep.

Much has been said of the arrogance and assumption of the domestic servants of America. There have been some visitors

of the States, however, who could see but little cause for such an imputation; they profess to have seen but few domestic servants who conducted themselves worse than they had seen some of the same class demean themselves in England.

The relations of master and servant, as they exist in England, are unknown or unrecognized in America. The latter are not here termed "servants," but "helps."

"I have lived," says Professor Nichol, "for six months in America, and during all that time I never met with one solitary instance of rudeness, or refusal of anything which I wished to procure."*

Household servants are here generally expected to do much more work than in England for the same wages, and on this account, probably, some of them may be dissatisfied; but this is not generally correct in relation to the houses of the wealthy.

It is true, servants in America exhibit no base subserviency, such as is too frequently seen in the old world; they are not such children of poverty and domestic drudgery as to be compelled to it. The master respects the menial, and elevates all below him, by showing that he wishes no unnatural dependence: he, at the same time, extorts no homage it would be mean to pay. This does not imply the dependence of the higher classes upon the lower,—the abuse that is sometimes charged upon republics,—it is the sign of a real superiority, involving both the knowledge and the practice of the true philosophy of help,—true republican equality,—and the mantle is worn becomingly by the wearer, and beneficially for mankind.†

"Know thyself," said the Greek sage. Know thy brother, says the Christian teacher of men.

Artificial barriers between master and servant never existed in the United States in such degree as in the mother country, and those that did exist were greatly diminished by the events of the revolution, which brought all classes of men who saw themselves so naturally dependent upon each other into nearer interest and association. The master had learned from experience that it was in vain to expect that the benefits to be derived from moral obligation could be realized, if usages and habits were opposed

* Professor Nichol's Lecture, before the Young Men's Institute of Edinburgh, on the Social Peculiarities of America.

† American servants do not generally wear liveries. They consider that in England these distinctions disgrace the wearers, and very few badges of serfdom of any kind are tolerated on the plea of national custom.

to the interests and feelings of the servant; that that softening of the manners which tends so much to the harmony of social life, could not be anticipated unless the example of the employer was held up, and brought nearer to the view of the employed. As what may be termed the lower classes of the people are not mere slaves to the convenience of others, neither are they degraded by epithets which are applied to the masses less privileged in some other countries;—"the uncultivated mob," "the ignorant vulgar," are terms that are seldom or never employed in regard to them. They are recognised as honourable members of the community, and an impulse is thus given to the mercury of character compelling it to rise in the tube of society through all the gradations of rank and station.

Far more than in England the Americans seem to make it a principle to extend the hand of fellowship to every man who discharges faithfully his duties, and maintains good order,—who manifests a deep interest in the welfare of general society,—whose deportment is upright, and whose mind is intelligent,—without stopping to ascertain whether he swings a hammer, or draws a thread, or spreads a table.

"There is nothing," says the late celebrated Daniel Webster "so distant from all natural claim as the reluctant and backward sympathy, the forced smile, the checked conversation, the hesitating compliance, the well-off are too apt to manifest to those a little down, with whom, in comparison of intellect and the principles of virtue, they principally sink into insignificance."

Abstractedly we all know and believe that there is a "touch of nature which makes the whole world kin;" and what is Americans in some degree act out their professed principle in relation to the necessary living appendages of their homes and upon whom so much of its order and happiness depends.

> "God or angel guest
> With man, as with his friend familiar, us'd
> To sit indulgent, and with him partake
> Rural repast, permitting him the while
> Venial discourse unblamed."

Few domestic servants, comparatively, are kept in America. Much of the manual labour is performed by the females of each family respectively, however respectable or wealthy; while their houses are in general so conveniently arranged, as to obviate the necessity of keeping a large establishment of domestics.

Family servants, and others emigrating from Europe, however, who are sober and industrious, very often find opportunities, in families, of improving their condition, in accordance with the degree of their education, knowledge, or general qualifications.

"The state of morality in this country," says the *North American Review* of 1828—9, "is sounder than in Europe, and we have less crime, in proportion to the population. The Americans have less inducements to guilt, because subsistence is so easily procured; and all their wants are within the reach of industry. Our vices are the results of idleness, thoughtlessness, passion and sudden impulse; not of want, constitutional depravity, and political corruption. Having much time to spare, the common people drink, become sots, gamble, quarrel, and fight; these are the prevailing excesses. We have no privileged orders to render fashionable the vices of seduction, boxing, and racing. Convictions are relatively fewer than in England; they average, throughout the whole country, about 300 annually to the million; whilst in England they are nearly 700; and in Ireland 800. And on a careful analysis of these convictions we find more than half are coloured people and foreigners. We may, therefore, call drunkenness, gambling, fighting, leading to occasional murders, our prevailing vices; and the traits of temper or irregular conduct that we manifest oftenest, are vanity, exaggeration, and a disposition to over-reach one another."

The number of original languages in the world is said to be about 80; but, including the various dialects, or branches derived from them, it amounts to upwards of 3000, of which about 550 are European. In Asia and Oceana there are nearly 1000; in Africa, 270; and in America, 1200.

Although the population of America may be referred to three distinct branches of the human family,—the Caucasian, the Ethiopian, and that designated by Professor Blumenbach as the American,—viz., descendants of emigrants from Europe, Africa and India, or aboriginal inhabitants, and therefore descendants of almost every portion of the world,—yet being principally of English ancestry, the prevailing language is English; and if they do not speak a purer Saxon than their English ancestors,—and some have a little deflected from the standard of English pronunciation,—they have fewer provincialisms and dialects. Generally, the idiomatic infringements on

the purity of our language are few. There are few persons above the lowest rank, who do not speak as well as act with propriety.

American writers, however, adopt expressions and idioms unknown to the British classics. Their utterance is also marked by a peculiar modulation, which can scarcely be reconciled to the received ideas of euphony.

CHAPTER XI.

VARIETY OF SURFACE, SOIL, AND CLIMATE OF THE UNITED STATES GENERALLY.—Their dissimilarity with those of Europe in the same degree of latitude. Their influence on human life. Seasons of the year. Varieties of vegetable life, and their general dissimilarity to those of Europe. Scenery of the North-Eastern and Middle States. America not classic ground. Rural homesteads. Principal objects of attraction in rural scenery. Where situated. General character of American landscapes. Scenery of the Southern and Western States. River scenery—the Mississippi, Ohio. Cataracts. Autumnal appearance of forests. Mountain scenery. Magnificent and pictorial beauty of the lakes. Their Indian legendary associations. Testimony of the Earl of Carlisle. "Virginia Water."

In so vast a region as that of the United States, embracing every zone, a great variety of surface and soil is necessarily included. Generally, America may be said to be an undulating plain of unusual fertility. To the north there is an area of grain-bearing quality exceeding 1000 miles square, intersected by lakes, railroads, and canals, where the cultivation of green crops, to preserve the vigour of the soil, is unnecessary: this may also be said of other portions of the country. But, taken as a whole, from north to south, it is greatly diversified. And between these fertile and extensive valleys, the inland districts contain mountains exceeding 6000 feet in elevation, producing a climate most remarkable, excessively changeable, and giving birth to a peculiar character of arboreta and flora.

The climates are strikingly various. The same variety of climate indeed is presented by the whole extent of the United States, so far as regards heat and cold, as may be experienced in proceeding from the equator to the pole, or in ascending a mountain within the tropics. Very remarkable is the succession in the different orders of plants which rapidly succeed to each other in ascending a mountain. From the palm trees and sugar canes at the foot of the mountain, the traveller rises to the vines and olives of a milder clime; thence to the chestnuts and oaks; afterwards to the fir trees, corresponding with the climate of Scotland and Riga; and, higher up, to the stunted rhododendrons, corresponding to the south of Lapland; at last he rises to the litchen, rangefrinus, auriculas, and other plants of

Greenland and Spitzbergen; at the summit he finds only perpetual snow and hard-bound frost.

The climate and soil of the country together are adapted to the production of almost everything that can sustain life or increase its luxuries. In New England, the winters are long and severe,—the summer oppressive,—the autumn delightful. The atmosphere, however, is sometimes dry, thin, and desiccating, having, as is supposed, an injurious effect on the human constitution, rendering its inhabitants less florid and robust than the English. No portion of the earth furnishes anything more cheering than the fall of the year in this section of the Union. Indeed, the most splendid rural scenery presented throughout America is when the first frost touching the leaves changes them into a hundred dyes. The forests are then in their glory; the brightest yellow and the deepest red are intermingled with green, orange, and brown, in endless variety and brilliancy; the whole woodlands presenting a depth and glow of colouring belonging to no other country;—the landscapes ever and anon diversified by the revolutions of the seasons, and the changes of the atmosphere. In those tints in the American fall, the year has been said, like a dolphin, to give out its brightest colours as it dies.

> "The sloping sun with arrows bright
> Pierces the forest's waving mane;
> The universe seems wrapped in light,
> A floating robe of rosy haze.
> O Autumn! thou art here a king,
> And round thy throne the smiling hours
> A thousand fragrant tributes bring
> Of golden fruits and blushing flowers."

November, the month so proverbially unpleasant in England, is here the most agreeable of the year—that during which occurs what is designated the "Indian summer," a phenomenon as yet never satisfactorily explained. The atmosphere, previously chilly and damp, suddenly becomes delightfully warm. A slight haziness,—a pure, mystical, romantic veil overspreads the sky, through which the sun's rays diffuse a ruddy and pleasing light. The winds are still, and all nature combines to produce an indescribably serene and cheerful frame of mind. After continuing a fortnight, or sometimes from October to December, this calm, beautiful Indian summer ceases; the misty curtain is gradually removed, and winter commences in all its rigour.

It is remarkable that the climate of America is found to differ from that of the eastern continent—the amount of heat in the same parallel of latitude being less than in Europe, although the difference, from causes satisfactorily explained by Baron Humboldt, is not so great as was formerly imagined. The atmosphere is 10 degrees warmer on the coast of Europe than in the same parallels of latitude on the coasts of America, owing, as is supposed, to the vast forests that still exist, to the peculiar configuration of the country, and to the important influence of the polar winds, which are unobstructed from the borders of the Frozen Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico. The mean temperature of Massachusetts is 49 degrees of Fah., Philadelphia 53, Virginia 57, Charleston 63, and New Orleans about 70. The climate of the North-East States is said greatly to resemble that of Pekin in China. New York lies in the latitude of Naples. The climate of Paris, which is about 49 degrees north, is as mild as that at Washington, which is about 39 degrees north; and in the same ratio in regard to the other States. The climate of some parts of America is nearly tropical, and requires here no particular description.

The atmosphere, however, throughout the greater portion of the States, is extremely variable, often changing from heat to cold several times in the same day. And these extremes are great and sudden. The rays of the sun are intense at noon, while the cold at night is excessive; and in the early morning and towards evening it is almost equally severe. In Kentucky, the thermometer in the summer rises to 100 in the shade, and in the winter, although in latitude 38, sinks to 40 or 50 degrees below freezing point.

The following are general observations on the climatic conditions of the United States by gentlemen who have made the subject their especial study. The summer temperature of America is lower, under equal degrees of latitude, than that of Europe. The average temperature of St. Petersburgh is found on the eastern coast of America in latitude 47° 30′ or 12° 30′; more to the south, and in like manner, we find the climate of Koningsburg, latitude 43° 36′, at Halifax, in latitude 44° 39′. Toulouse, latitude 43° 36′, corresponds in its thermic relations to Washington.

"It is very hazardous to attempt to obtain any general results respecting the distribution of heat in the United States," says

another author, "since there are three regions to be distinguished.

"1. The region of the Atlantic States east of the Alleghany.

"2. The Western States in the wide basin between, and the Rocky Mountains watered by the Mississippi, Ohio, Arkansas, and the Missouri; and,

"3. The elevated plains between the Rocky Mountains, and the coast range of North California, through which the Oregon or Columbia river wends its course."

The climate of the more northern and eastern districts is the most mild and uniform in the vicinity of the lakes;* while it is proved by accurate thermometrical data, that the climate west of the Alleghany Chain is subject to greater extremity than that on the Atlantic side †

As the east coast of the United States may be compared in equal latitudes with the Siberian and Chinese eastern coasts in respect to mean temperature, so the western coasts of Europe and America have very justly been compared together.‡

As the result of accurate meteorological calculations during three successive years in one of the Middle States, the number of fine sunny days has been found to be 315; the remainder were thunder-storm and rainy days; and of the latter the number was the smaller.§

Owing, as is supposed, to the influence of the polar winds, and to the variation of the atmospheric currents belonging to the more temperate regions, it has been remarked that a mild winter in Europe often occurs contemporaneously with a severe winter in America and Asia; while the mildness of the winter in America affords a presumption of a colder winter on the other side of the Atlantic.

Although the climate of America may be regarded as highly salubrious on the whole, it is nevertheless a remarkable circumstance, and is advanced on what may be considered good authority, that in the States only four persons out of every hundred live to the age of sixty; while seven out of every hundred arrive at this age in England. The average of human life in New York is estimated only at twenty-five years; while

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* Dove on Climate.—Eclec Review.

† A Treatise, by Samuel Forry, on the Climate of the United States in 1842.

‡ Humboldt's Views of Nature.—Pp. 103—104.

§ Chambers's Things as they are in America.

in England the average is thirty years.† No one who has been in America but must have remarked the delicate appearance of the inhabitants of both sexes. This degree of mortality and apparent emasculation, however, is attributable not so much to the dryness of the climate or aridity of the atmosphere,—the cause to which some would refer it wholly,—but principally, as already said, to the diet and habits of the people (the latter formed in infancy and childhood), added to want of exercise, to close rooms heated with stoves, and to the precautions which some of these circumstances render necessary. The exceptions that are found to this rule are in persons employed in the open air, who though not generally rubicund and hale, or so florid in complexion as the peasantry in England, are wiry, healthy, and strong.

There is also a difference between Europe and America in the seasons of the year. The succession of the seasons is in general in England gradual and insensibly progressive. The one steals upon the other with an imperceptible gradation; and we find ourselves treading on the flowers of spring, and fanned by its zephyrs, when we have scarcely recovered from the piercing blasts of winter. In the same manner the sultry heats of summer overtake us before we have ceased to enjoy the breezes of spring; and autumn tempts us with its luscious fruits before our palates have lost the flavour of the midsummer dessert. In America, nature seems to advance with increased velocity as she approaches the equinoxes. The leaves begin to fall in the latter part of September. In November, the woods are stripped of their foliage, and winter soon after begins in earnest;—the trees only renewing their verdure in May, when summer again commences, and vegetation advances with amazing rapidity. Thus summer succeeds winter with scarcely the interval of spring; and the inhabitants, after having been for several months exposed to sharp frosts and biting winds, have to endure the heat of a scorching sun. The increase of temperature in America is more sudden than in Europe; the maximum and minimum readings of the thermometer are commonly, during one day in autumn, from 40° to 50° respectively.

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† The average duration of human life, as recently shown by the Carlisle tables for England, and by Professor M'Kay's, of Baltimore, United States, is, England, 38.7; United States, 36.9: making a difference in favour of the former of 1.8.

In no part of the world can the transition from heat to cold be more sudden or severe than in the Eastern and Middle States. At this period also the sky is exceedingly clear; and at night the stars shine with a brilliancy uncommon in England; while the atmosphere is beautifully transparent, light, and dry. Probably no section of the country, in regard to salubrity of climate, is to be compared with the highlands of the Carolinas and Georgia. Added to an atmosphere of perpetual spring, how glorious are their skies! Though like those within the tropics, often intensely blue, yet sometimes the horizons, though less gorgeous and splendid, are most serenely beautiful, resembling those of England without their tameness,—glowing with rich and varied dyes, and an almost unimaginable mellowness of light.

America is a country where nature is not only seen on a great scale, and in her gigantic aspects, and the energies of whose inhabitants appear to be developed to a corresponding altitude: it is also filled with enchanting lakes and rivers, cataracts and beautiful prairies, with mountain solitudes, wildernesses, and forests of unexampled awfulness and grandeur, while its virgin soil can afford room, in future centuries, to nourish hundreds of millions of human beings. These are great physical facts, and the moral to be drawn from them is evident to all.

All the varieties of vegetable life in America are different in species, though frequently not in genus, from those of Europe. While often resembling each other, they are not the same. Among other peculiarities in relation to the vegetable aspects of the country, there are no furze commons or heaths,* and no deserts, or vast barren arid plains, such as exist in other parts of the globe.

Its landscape scenery, in some parts, is much the same as in England; in others, embracing whole districts, scarcely anything is seen but a monotonous map of rude geometrical divisions, dotted over with the charred stumps of primeval forest trees. Here the population is thinly scattered through regions of interminable forest and waste-land, while the appearances of nature, widely varying from those of European countries, are but little calculated to attract a tourist in search simply of the picturesque.

* "America has no heaths; Africa no laurel; the southern hemisphere no roses."

Here you behold something like an English meadow, and the gay enamel of the rising hills; there the hanging verdure of the hill-side forest; although generally you look in vain, not only for the dark brown heath, but also for the rich and varied corn-fields, the soft, smooth, well-trimmed lawns, the ornamental plots, the pleasure grounds, and the well-dressed hedge-rows, that are so interesting to the feelings and hearts of Englishmen from the associations they awaken.

America is not classic ground; hence it has not that power of recalling events and associations in which memory and imagination so much delight. With the exception of the rude hieroglyphical delineations and emblems, or symbolical registers of its earlier aboriginal inhabitants, there are no memorials of an ancient mythology;—no such impersonations as nymphs, and fawns, and dryads;—not one valuable vestige of ancient or mediæval, and but few even of modern art. No temple,—no ruins,—no fragments of an altar,—no inscription half effaced,—no name half barbaric is found, recalling to the fancy those forms of light, and beauty, and majesty, which in other lands poetry created to people scenes of ancient story.

Nor are there visible throughout its whole extent any ancient Gothic cathedrals and ruined castles, suggesting historic records and legendary tales of former times; nor royal parks, nor magnificent palaces, enriched with the embellishments of modern taste or the remains of ancient grandeur; but you see a mighty extent of territory, a short time since uncultivated, unproductive, unpeopled, now acquiring beauty and productiveness from the warm embraces of liberty. The antiquity of Europe is no model for the juvenility of America. In most respects things are totally different; an observation that applies no less to external nature than to forms of government, and to civil and social organisations.

Through the interior of the Middle and New England States are scattered cultivated farms, studded with neat-looking farm-houses and their appendages, not unfrequently of rather quaint architecture, with villages of charming cottages, smiling amid the beauty of the cultivated landscape. And who that has seen one has not been charmed with a New England village,—the houses, constructed of wood, painted white, with their bright green jalousies folded back as exterior window shutters, and their neat porches, and flower-pots in the lattice, all neat and

trim, as though but just from the hand of the builder?* More remotely, dense black forests,—solitudes over which broods yet unbroken the sleep of ages,—appear blended with the bases of a chain of low blue mountains, which, while they bound the prospect, constitute a magnificent back-ground to the picture. Here a vast district is but partially cultivated, and intersected by thickly wooded hills and rocky eminences receding from the eye: through this a river flows, and rising in a gentle acclivity from the margin of the latter beautiful dwellings and pleasure grounds are seen, displaying, in addition to European plants and flowers, whole groups of peach trees, disposed and arranged in combination, like the apple orchards of England.

Among other spots of captivating natural scenery in America are those which adorn the banks of the Potomac in Columbia, the Ohio, the Connecticut, and the Hudson; particularly that portion of the latter distinguished by the name of the Highlands, in the vicinity of West Point. These combine the elements of the grand and beautiful in a high degree. The changeful sky,—the fast flitting shadows,—the brilliant sunlight,—the plenteous fields,—the broad swelling stream,—the dark rugged mountains, verdant with trees, and with moss and lichens streaming in the wind! The noble Hudson is seen flowing in tranquil beauty,—from its broad mirror-like surface the bright sun and sky are gloriously reflected;—we trace its winding current through valley and through plain,—now spreading into some calm and waveless lake,—now narrowed into a rapid stream between massy rocks and waving trees, or overshadowed by the lofty bluff, with its various breaks and projections, exhibiting the boldest strokes of nature,—its crest, or stupendous wall of crags rearing itself high above the deep water that washes its base. No scenery on the Rhine is said to be equal to that of many parts of the Hudson. The river at the Highlands has formed a passage through two ranges of mountains, evidently separated by some convulsion of nature, and which, in the beauty and variety of their forms, can scarcely be exceeded. The Highlands are fifty-three miles above the city of New York, and occupy a space of from sixteen to twenty miles in width; the loftiest peaks above the level of the river varying from one hundred

* Wooden houses are common in America, but owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, which forms a leading peculiarity of the North American climate, and which the heaviest rains can scarcely be said to interrupt, added to frequent painting, they are almost incredibly durable.

to nearly two hundred feet in height. Nor, in the instances of wild and picturesque scenery, must the little falls at Herkimer country, in the same State, be omitted; nor the Chimney Rocks, on the highway from North Carolina to Tennessee; the latter so beautifully varied with hills, rivers, and mountain streams, and summer residences, ever-verdant pleasure grounds, splendid forests, and brilliant skies. The defile of the falls at Herkimer extends about two miles, and is a deep cut through the solid mountain rock for a passage of the Erie canal, descending forty feet, by five locks, in the distance of a mile. The stage road, the railroad, the canal, and the Mohawk river, all pass through this wild mountain gorge, in the space of a few hundred feet. The river descends forty-two feet, by two long rapids, in about three-fourths of a mile;—the mountains, rising up almost perpendicularly on both sides, are clothed with pine and other trees, which in the summer and autumn are in great beauty. This view resembles in some of its features the yet more magnificent river-road scenery in Jamaica, called "Sixteen-mile-walk," between Spanish Town and St. Thomas-in-the-Vale.

Notwithstanding that diffuseness so destructive of picturesqueness and point in American landscape generally, the banks of the Hudson, as also those of the Delaware, and particularly of the Connecticut, possess in many places scenes of a finely grouped and concentrated character, so strongly resembling those of the river and villa scenery of England, that they cannot fail to awaken associations of no ordinary interest in the mind of an English stranger who views them for the first time, and who has gathered all his ideas, both of America and her people, from partial and prejudiced sources;—scenes awakening emotions, as connected with his own beloved land, for which he could be scarcely able to account, except that he did not expect to behold such picturesque localities and so much natural loveliness in "half-civilized, infantile America." One such scene still haunts the writer's memory, and may serve as an example.

On one side were lawns of smooth and rich verdure, interspersed with luxurious groves and woods, where many seats of elegant retirement appeared. On either side was a steep acclivity, covered with innumerable shrubs, trees, and flowers; all arranged with taste, and crowned with mansions of elegant architecture. Some with spreading lawns of green sward, relieved by clumps of flowering foliage; and others, with grounds spreading upwards from the river, thickly sheltered with trees.

The extremity of a richly cultivated garden there descended to the margin of the water, terminating with a massive flight of steps, and sculptured water-nymphs in classic taste, exhibiting, also, arbours of trellis work, and grottos of more substantial fabric, covered with luxuriant convolvuli and shrubs so interwoven as to produce an impenetrable shade. All these receded as the proud steamboat held on its way, throwing up clouds of smoke into the pure air, and walking the calm waters in triumphal beauty, or wrestling, like a demon of kindred power, with the angry current; the scene, the writer repeats, receded, but it had awakened associations connected with his native land, and though it came and disappeared with the suddenness and the loveliness of a dream, it left impressions that years have not removed, and the memory of it still fills the mind with indescribable delight.

But the general character of American scenery, in its Middle and Eastern States at least, is by no means picturesque; while at the same time its best and loveliest landscapes are most of them devoid of traditionary interest and romance, as well as the hallowing charm of poetic association. The mountains, with few exceptions, are round and corpulent protuberances, and rarely rise into such forms of wild and savage grandeur as are seen in Scotland and many parts of Europe, but especially in tropical regions.

Advancing into the interior, in one direction from New York, the eye rests upon a rough country of great extent; —fields of grain here and there sweeping beneath the sides of black hills which show little else but rocks and grass;—shallow rivulets traversing the uneven waste, but often hidden by woodlands, which intercept a prospect of the country beyond;—spotted now and then with silvery glimpses of the Hudson, as it steals through the sloping ground in the distance, and bounded on both sides by the dim purple highlands, frowning sometimes into hoary battlements, and sometimes subsiding into narrow ravines hardly illuminated by the mid-day sun.

The district of Albany, Saratoga, and Lake Champlain, is one of the few in the United States which, in addition to its pictorial beauty, possesses interest, from the peculiar association of these places with the history of the revolutionary struggle. Here a series of engagements ensued, first between the English and the French, and afterwards between the British and American forces. The first was at Fish Creek, on the Hudson,

where, after a series of operations in this vicinity, General Burgoyne surrendered, with his army of 5000 men, to General Gates, in 1777. As the tourist pursues his way to Fort Edward, and Lakes George and Champlain, he meets with a succession of scenes, not only among the most picturesque in America, but abounding, at almost every step, in the deepest historical interest.

In other parts, immense forests of most luxuriant foliage cover the whole of the uncultivated earth, often half concealed from view by opaque vapours, which cling close to the ground. And as the hand of industry has not yet taught all the rivers to run into a proper channel, or drained off the stagnant water, many of the most fertile plains are rendered unavailable from frequent inundations, or are converted into marshes, where the warmth of the sun, the moisture of the climate, and the fertility of the soil, call forth the most vigorous powers of vegetation; while in whole districts, especially in the Eastern States, the scenery is vapid and monotonous, if not altogether barren of incident.

For hundreds of miles towards the far-west the road passes through immense forests, excluding every view, except where, here and there, the axe of the woodman has made an opening, allowing the eye a momentary glimpse of the country beyond,—"wilds immeasurably spread, and lengthening as we go,"—the gloom of which, except when the breeze sweeps over their summits, raises feelings of sublimity, as well as presents images of solemn grandeur and awful solitude. Amid these boundless forests skirting the horizon northward, eastward, westward, southward, which you cannot with the utmost effort scan, and the blue expanse immense, unfathomable, overhead, you stand amazed, lost in the contemplation.

There are, indeed, few scenes in America, except those presented by the naked, silent grandeur of the Mississippi, rolling its vast turbid tides onward to the ocean, more calculated to inspire the bosom of a contemplative christian with high and holy thoughts of the great Creator and Father of all.

> "His temple is the wilderness,
> And the lone rock that my feet press
> His altar—or the virgin sod;
> And the deep silence breathes of God."

The ground in these vast forests being free from underwood, and the trees having thus the advantage of fully developing themselves, their stately growth and huge proportions render

them objects of great natural magnificence, exciting the wonder and admiration of the European traveller. But the silence of these vast forests—the solemn, unutterable, expressive silence! The silence is awful,—and no more awful than strange. Even in the summer there are no birds, as in England, pouring melody through the woodlands! Living nature is silent. No sound is heard but an occasional *sough*, when the wind sweeps over the vast vegetable mass, with a noise resembling the waves of the sea upon the shore after an expended tempest;—inanimate nature thus speaking only in that voice—

> "Which seemed to him
> Who dwelt at Patmos, for his Saviour's sake,
> The sound of many waters."

Probably the most beautiful of the Western States, or territories, as to natural scenery, as well as the most thriving both as to agriculture and commerce, are Wisconsin, Michigan, and Ohio. The surface of the former is gently undulating. The highest elevations are upon the shores of Lake Superior, where the hills are covered with luxuriant forests of ever-green firs, spruce, and hemlock. This State is intersected by five or six navigable rivers, and dotted with numerous and extensive lakes.

Standing on a gently rising hill in Michigan, the eye wanders for miles over an undulating surface, obstructed only by the trunks of massive, lofty trees, or white and burr-oak plains; unlike the forests of the Southern States, which are impervious even to the sight, but resembling the cultivated orchards and parks of England, perfectly unencumbered by underwood;—a green canopy of foliage above, and a carpet of velvet grass beneath, admitting, even in places where the white man's foot has never trod, not only equestrians, but carriages and horses.

Madison is the capital of Wisconsin, and, like Cincinnati, the chief town of Ohio, consists of villas and gardens, which are here, however, beautifully situated between four lakes, the shores of which are fringed with oaks,—the clean white houses in striking contrast with the dark-green of the surrounding woods, and the profusion of flowering shrubs. Some of these are in the Gothic style of building, and some like Grecian temples with Corinthian columns, which, though not always corresponding in simplicity to the tone of the rural scenery around, present an appearance greatly and almost inconceivably attractive.

Although all the rivers and river-scenery in America may be said to partake of the same characteristics, that along the banks of the Ohio is perhaps the most beautiful. This magnificent stream, the *la belle Riviere* of the French, rolls along now gentle and placid,—now abruptly dashing aside, frowning, threatening,—now through a gorge or defile between two ranges of lofty and precipitous mountains, exhibiting the most magnificent scenery, and displaying fearful convulsions of nature, many of the rocks thrown up perpendicularly, others broken into wild and awful forms; stupendous piles, appearing to have risen from the earth with all their glories in their prime. Unlike the Mississippi, the waters are often clear, and, when within their frame of distant violet mountains, of a fresh light green colour. Verdant islets on either side swell from the bosom of the stream, with their massy tufts of vine-covered thickets; while farther off stretch the wide plains of Illinois, Iowa, and Kentucky, garlanded with majestic forests, or presenting only the open vastness of the prairie.

The mountain scenery of the more easterly portions of America, though generally uninteresting, exhibiting but few pictorial features, is occasionally relieved by aspects of great beauty and magnificence,—landscapes unrivalled in variety and extent; displaying, also, stupendous phenomena of nature, which appear to have been originally created for the express purpose of exhibiting the power of her great Author, or of forming exceptions to the rules by which geologists attempt to illustrate her action.

Mount Lafayette, in the Franconia Mountain, situated in the White Mountain group of New Hampshire, the summit of which forms the appearance of an extraordinary human profile; though greatly inferior to the regal Alps, which the whole Alleghany series are supposed in some particulars to resemble; and inferior in height to the central ridges of the latter and the Rocky Mountains, or even to Mount Washington, in the same vicinity,—yet adding the beautiful lake that spreads its crystal waters at the foot, the narrow gorge by which it is approached, together with its other rural accessaries of natural beauty and majesty, presents a subject well worthy of the painter's pencil and the poet's song.

There are few views in America, in respect to picturesque grandeur and massive breadth of outline, equal to that presented by the Franconia notch, viewed especially from the hill east-

ward, looking from the village of Bethlehem across the Franconia valley.

In the States of Pennsylvania and Maryland, the mountains multiply as the traveller proceeds; and what was the summit of one eminence proves only the base of another, opening out at length to scenes of extended magnificence below. Beyond an amphitheatre of mountains in the former of these States, whose tops appear as numerous as waves of the sea, and whose feet are concealed by the forest, extends the Campagna, where towns, rivers, and woods, and all the wealth of cultivation, are seen mingled in gay confusion; the Atlantic, in one direction, bounding the horizon, into which, after wandering through the whole extent of the landscape, the Chesapeake pours her fruitful streams.

Much of the scenery of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, present Arcadian landscapes, where there are only lacking the shepherd and shepherdess to render them equally delightful with the regions of ancient romance. Charming episodes of dell, and rock, and waterfall, and wide-reaching plains, meet the eye in almost every direction.

In these States, where the mighty Alleghany chain centres, and rears its highest and most famed summits, the range to the south-east forms an immense line of bold and lofty promontories,—sometimes presenting bold perpendicular or over-hanging fronts,—sometimes exhibiting their fantastic profiles separated into cliffs and peaks,—and sometimes descending by gentle declivities to the ravines and valleys; while many streams issue from between the rocks, occasionally swelling into cascades, and rolling towards the more mighty and imposing currents, watering the lowlands in their progress.

From the north-easternmost summit of the Alleghany Chain in Virginia, and nearest the Atlantic, the prospect has a peculiar grandeur. In addition to the richly varied and magnificent back ground, the Atlantic Ocean is rolling in a long, calm, heavy swell, or breaking in savage fury upon the headland or cliff; the monotony of its mighty mass of waters ever varied by the numerous picturesque islands and rocks that stud the coast. In the south-west direction, the spectator seems to look down upon half the world, the outstretched earth beneath presenting an appearance of a billowy chaos of wooded heights and valleys, in which human dwellings are visible merely as specks of light, scarcely discernible to the naked eye; while far away winds a lovely

river, the long woodland slope sweeping up from its banks in rich luxuriance, and terminating in the upland precipice, or the bold promontory crowned with embowering trees; while, in the distance, a long line of rocky heights throws gigantic shades over the water, and here and there at intervals, appears an opening among those stupendous scenes, which again retreat as if for protection into the embraces of the neighbouring mountains; the land here rising from the margin of the river in green sloping acclivities, until, from gently rolling hill sides and moderate elevations, it insensibly swells into lofty and majestic heights, whose blue outline in that direction terminates the view. To the north-west, the prospect is circumscribed by alternately cultivated and thickly-wooded hills and rocky eminences, inclining gently upwards, on either hand from the same river, in a semicircular form, to a little distance in the rear, enclosing innumerable cottages and farmsteads in a spacious vale; the entire landscape thus smiling by turns in all the charms of tillage, and in all the beauty and magnificence of the primeval wilderness.

A gentleman's seat in this district, near James River, is thus described:—"The lawn is beautifully laid out, and in the style of one of our country villas of the olden time, giving every assurance of comfort and every feeling of repose. The tropical richness and brightness of leaf and flowers added an inexpressible charm to them as they stood out in bold relief against the pure and cloudless air around; so different from that indistinct outline which is but too common in our moist atmosphere. Then there was the graceful and weeping aspen; the wild ivy,—its white bloom tinged as with maiden's blush; the broad-leafed catalpa; the magnolia,—rich in foliage and in flower;—while scattered around were beds of bright and lovely colours. The extremes of this charming view were bounded either by the venerable mansion over whose roof the patriarchal elms of which we have been speaking threw their cool and welcome shade, or by the broad stream, whose bosom was ever and anon enlivened with some trim bark or rapid-gliding steamer, and whose farther shore was wooded to the water's edge." *

Not only are the valleys in some of these highlands in extensive cultivation, but the soil of the mountains themselves being singularly rich and fertile, their wild romantic character is often

* Hon. Captain Murray's Lands of the Slave and Free.

seen tempered by the rural art of man;—stupendous heights clothed with abundant harvests;—impetuous cataracts tamed to the peasant's will. Cultivation reaches even to the very summits of some of these rugged heights, and patches of maize or Indian corn, and other cereal products, peep out between masses of rock and tangled brushwood.

From a mountain range in the Delaware country, about two thousand feet in elevation, the course of which is oblique from the river which gives the district its designation, and which is often diverted out of its path by the irregular protrusion and retrogression of cliffs and promontories, is presented a somewhat different, but an equally interesting picture to the admirer of natural scenery. From the north-west to the south-east rolls the broad rapid stream,—now falling among the crags of the opposite mountains, with a noise like that of loud and continued thunder, in a mass of discoloured foam,—now flashing in the sunbeams,—and now shadowed by overhanging woods, or deep and dark defiles, till it is entirely concealed;—again bursting from beneath the darkness in a broad sheet of foam, and falling thundering into the vale. The right bank of the river, looking to the east, is fenced by a dizzy and inaccessible wall of crags; while the mountains on the other side present a similar wall to the south, which declines westward to the water at an angle,—the whole declivity covered over with loose rocks, of a stern character of wildness and grandeur, the remnant of some strong avalanche tumbled from pinnacles above by the same convulsion that thrust the mountain from the bowels of the earth, or shattered it, already uprisen, asunder. A few withered hemlocks, and other gloomy trees, with maple, beech, and oak, are here and there seen springing from the interstices of the rocks, their knotted, contorted roots, seeming to bind the disjointed fragments together; while other places are covered with flowering raspberries, alder, and other shrubs, with here and there the euphorbia and red blossomed aloes, prickly cactus, and milky, snake-like, creeping, cryptogamous or cellular plants of various kinds; though, in general, the eye reposes on rocks entirely naked and barren, or only tufted with mosses, lichens, and ferns.

The landscape from the Alleghany ridges, as seen from the western edge of their summits towards the Carolinas and Georgia, is sublime and beautiful in a very high degree. The ridges here succeed each other almost without number, until the

most distant is shadowed out upon the horizon in a pale and misty magnitude that invests the whole picture with sublimity, and creates an impression of grandeur too lofty to be scanned by ought living, save

> "The lordly eagle, when, from craggy throne,
> He mounts the storm, majestic and alone."

Some of the spurs of these mountains, from some points, are seen clothed with noble woods; sometimes they are projected into the valley, and sometimes they run parallel with the flanks of the mountains, whose beautiful, picturesque, serrated summits, here undulating in rounded hummocks, and there presenting acute ridges and peaks, have everywhere a rich velvety appearance from the depth and luxuriance of the forests. Sometimes the ravines between these mountains exhibit every variety of rock and precipice. When cultivated, the slopes are disposed in a succession of terraces. Some are rough, dark, and shapeless; others rise in swelling summits. One, distinguished by the name of Trail Mountain, is so high that it forms a nucleus, whence all the hills around radiate as from a centre; not a few, seen from a less elevated situation, shoot into fantastic and spiral peaks. In one direction the ridge appears a continued chain of inaccessible rocks, terminating at a prodigious height in innumerable jagged points; and the hills on which they rise seem to be cleft asunder as if by earthquakes; the chasms, horrible to behold, extending through the main substance of the rocks almost to their foundation.

A traveller advancing into the interior of these mountains, enters, perhaps, a narrow pass, which excludes every feature of the distant country, and finds himself shut up amidst tremendous crags, impending over the road, and where few signs of human existence appear; this at length opens to another scene of mountains, stretched in long perspective, wild and desolate; vast forests still hanging upon their base, and crowning the ridgy precipices that rise perpendicularly from the vale. The scene is perpetually changing, its features assuming new forms, as the winding road brings them to the eye in different points of view. Though the deep valleys between these mountains are, for the most part, clothed with forests, sometimes an abrupt opening presents a picture of inconceivable beauty and repose. Still advancing, the road leads into a deep valley, surrounded by almost inaccessible steeps; on rising again to the south-east, a vista opens, and exhibits a long perspective of retiring summits

rising over each other,—their ridges, clothed with forests, exhibiting, in the gloomy sunlight and transparent atmosphere of an almost tropical sky, images of surpassing grandeur and beauty; whilst here and there, between the receding heights, the eye again catches a glimpse of the far distant waters fading into the blue and clouded horizon.*

Flint, an American author, says,—"What are called the Gates of the Rocky Mountains, through which the Missouri seems to have torn itself a passage, are commonly described as the sublimest spectacle to be seen in this vast range of mountains. For nearly six miles these 'nitons' rise in black perpendicular masses twelve hundred feet above the surface of the river, the chasm being little more than one hundred and fifty yards wide; and the deep foaming waters of the Missouri rush through the passage as if it were a cataract."

We have already said that America, like Europe,—but the more so in proportion to the geographical extent of the former,—affords physical and climactic conditions of widely different character. The low arctic forms of vegetable life which clothes the highest elevations of the Rocky Mountains, as also the mountains of the Middle and North-Eastern portions of the Union, present a striking contrast to the rich luxuriance of orange groves, pines, cedars, vines, and myrtles, that are developed beneath the sky of the Southern States.

The scenery of the Southern States, in many respects, greatly excels that of the Northern, not only from the stateliness of its mountains, but particularly in its general picturesqueness and in its variety in form and quantity. As within the tropics, though not in such degree, the features of nature in these climates are broad, reposing, and dignified; power is displayed in all her attitudes; she seems to reject the temporizing of man, and to lie satiating herself with the glory of the pure and burning heaven; no appearance of patchwork disfigures her; no prettiness adorns her,—her barrenness is grand,—her cultivation is careless and irregular. Nature here luxuriates to romantic wildness, with which the eye, if not more delighted, is at least more fully satisfied than with the tame insipid regularity of art. Nothing is studied or trimmed,

* "The Alleghanies, in the Northern States, move on in stately and unbroken lines: in the South, they rise in Alpine summits, or break away into abrupt and frowning precipices."—*Harper's Magazine.*

but everything grows in wild, luxuriant disorder; the earth, all dazzling with sun-bright verdure and glorious unknown flowers; everything as if fresh from the Creator's hand. Myrtles and fir trees; magnolias and cypresses; bamboos and palms; sycamores and poplars; tulips and mulberries; willows, elms, and oaks,—these, many of them, towering above an hundred feet from the ground, are covered with mosses, vines, and trailing flowers, climbing to the highest branches, and depending in festoons like fantastic draperies, and wreathing themselves into heavy and almost impervious networks, the rich variegated foliage relieved by gorgeous flowers, brilliant as under the glorious first sunshine of the primeval earth, and producing an effect unimaginably picturesque and beautiful.

Such is the atmosphere of that region, so transparent, so pure, that every line of every object cuts clear and distinct against the sky, and a sense of the presence of all objects pervades the whole mind. Everything tells,—everything appears ample and independent. The scenes here presented sometimes compose a terrestrial paradise, compared to which the finest gardens of Europe, with their statues, artificial cascades, and all the refinements of human invention would appear insignificant and tame. In some of the landscapes in this region it would seem impossible for art to add anything but what would rather mar than adorn them. Nothing can be conceived, indeed, in comparison with them when spread out under the morning sun and the clear blue and brilliant atmosphere, except what we find now and then in the works of the first masters, such as Claude Lorraine, in which there is a selection and combination of beauties, and a disposition of parts, forms, and tints, which genius alone can seize from the living landscape, and transpose and transfer to canvas, and render perceptible to the minds of others.

"In the South, the proud mountain heights lift up their voice of praise to heaven." For the verdant meadows of the North, dotted with cottages and grazing herds, the South has her broad savannas, calm in the shadow of the palmetto and the magnolia; for the magnificence of the Hudson, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Ohio, are her mystic lagunes, beneath whose stately arcades of cypress, fancy floats at will through all the wildness of past and future. In exchange for the fairy lakes of the North, she has the loveliness of valleys composed and framed like a dream of the painter. Above are skies soft and

glowing with the genial warmth of summer suns, and beneath lie mysterious caverns whose secrets are still unread.*

"If," says Miss Bremer,† "life in the Northern States is a grand issue,—a poem full of great teaching,—then is that of the South a romance of infinite picturesque beauty;"—a remark that equally applies to the physical features and conformation of these States, and to their climatic conditions and character.

In Georgia and the Carolinas, are seen, as in Italy, the more modest forms of vegetation mixed with some of the most glorious productions which characterise the tropics, and here we may in some degree realise a conception of that exuberance of vegetable life which flourishes in all its splendour in Jamaica.

But as the woodland scenery of the North-Eastern and Middle States of America presents features different to that of the Southern, so also does that of the southern provinces to that within the tropics. Although the trees and shrubs in the Southern States are all evergreens, very beautiful, and of all shades, from lightest grey to a dark green, and of many varieties of hue, still there is not here the riant appearance of the tropics, but in the stern grandeur and gloominess of much of their mountain scenery they more resemble what is represented of Spain or the north of Barbary.

At the same time the coasts of Florida and Louisiana, so near the glowing line where the life of nature never ceases to bloom in magnificence, present some of the loveliest scenery which earth and ocean can produce. The trees are large, tall, and beautiful; the most picturesque productions of the vegetable world ever seen in temperate regions. The sea is studded with tracts of fairy land, glittering like emeralds in the golden sunshine, where the waving trees dip their long branches into the water; and against the deep verdure of the submerged rocks the sea anemone, amidst thousands of coral groves, rears its orange base, tipped with flower-like fans, or hangs its snake-like tentacles, writhing as the head-dress of Medusa; where the smooth sands are covered with shells sparkling with all the hues of the prism; where birds of orient plumage skim over the surface of the silvery sea, or glance in and out from groves laden with fruits and flowers; where the ocean, land-locked by these

* Harper's Magazine.
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owery labyrinths, these fairy isles of the tropic sea, retains its tranquillity even during the summer tempests.*

One peculiarity of the forests in some of the more northern divisions of the States is, that they are entirely free from underwood, so that they are easily penetrable by the foot passenger, and generally accessible to one on horseback, thus presenting an appearance of great stiffness and formality, while in the Southern States, as in the West India Islands and southern continent, such is the exuberance of vegetable life, that the woodlands are impervious even to the eye, while myriads of parasitical plants climbing the tall trees and otherwise encompassing them, or clasping them with their circling tendrils, hide the formality and stiffness of the vegetable giants that support them; and thus under the prodigal profusion of their clustering flowers, waving and drooping in easy motion with every tiny breath that moves them, they hang in curved wreaths from tree to tree, their flowers dancing and glittering beneath the bright glare of a semi-tropical sun. What can be more grand than a forest of oak in the Northen and Western States? or more beautiful than a grove of beeches and elms clothed in their autumnal tints? or more delicious than an apple or peach orchard of New England in full bloom? Yet the palm, the olive, the cypress, the cedar, the orange, the citron, the fig tree, and the pomegranate, the myrtle, and the vine, convey a different, a more luxurious feeling to the mind, and are associated with ideas which give to the landscape they adorn a character more delightfully, more poetically picturesque.

The sky, also, in the Southern States, is different in its aspects to what it is in the Northern, although throughout America it is clearer, more intensely blue, and more brilliant than in England, showing a difference in the rarefaction of the air, and in the nature of the terrestrial exhalations; circumstances on which much of the beauty of a landscape, as well as the salubrity of climate depend. During the autumnal season, and sometimes in winter, the air, soon after dawn, becomes agreeably elastic, and so transparent that distant objects appear almost as distinct and defined as within the tropics, while gold and amber clouds streak the heavens with glory far up into the clear azure; and at the same time, and owing to the same cause, the shifting, hiding, uncertain effects of European scenery are nowhere visi-

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ble in America. The shadows are everywhere defined and massy,—the mist lies like a solid substance against the sides of the mountains, whose summits spring up as from a magic base, delineating their sharp or bold rounded outline upon the bright surface of the air.

The summer scenery of the lakes, especially of Lakes George, Michigan, Champlain, and Huron,—the latter celebrated by the poet Noble,—is in some respects like that of Windermere. Here nature is seen in all her virgin beauty. Gay, luxuriant views break upon the spectator as he passes onward over their bosom, like scenes of fairy enchantment, or those produced by the fairy visions of the poets; spots where the genii who roam with printless feet over the dominions of nature (if ever such fairy forms have made their way to the world of twilight) might love to gambol under the light of the moon; Arcadian retreats, where an Actæon might dream of the pine-shaded Gargaphie, its "*fons tenui perlucidus undâ*," and the bright creatures of the mythic world, that once animated the waters of that solitary grot.*

But the fairy and the wood-nymph are alike unknown in America; poetic illusion, save in the immortal verse of her own living bards, Bryant and Noble, has not yet consecrated her glens and fountains, her forests, her uninvaded glooms;—her rivers roll in silence, and even her ridgy mountains lift up their blue summits in unphantomed solitude. Association sleeps, or it reverts only to the vague mysteries of speculation.

Perhaps a restless Indian queen,—"pale Marian with braided hair,"—may wander at night by some highly favoured spring;† perhaps some tall and brawny hunter, "in vestments for the chase arrayed," may yet hunt the hart over certain distinguished ridges, or urge his barken canoe over some cypress-fringed pool;

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* Ovid, Metam 3.

† It is recorded of a beautiful Indian female, as an instance of deliberate suicide, that she threw herself into one of these lakes in consequence of her ardent love for one who proved false to her; reminding the classic reader of Phillis in her ungovernable passion for Damaphoon who describes the crescent bay into which she intended to throw herself, and tells him of her determination and the consequences that should follow:—

"Est sinus, adductos modico falcatus in arcus;
Ultima præcupta cornua mole rigent.
Hinc mihi suppositas immittere corpus in undas
Mens fuit; et, quoniam fallere pergis, erit.
Ad tua me fluctus projectam littora portent.
Occurramque oculis intumulata tuis."—*Ovid, Hero.* 2.

but all other places are left to the caprice or fancies of the utilitarian.*

Here are seen silvery seas that lie like mirrors, now of sapphire, and now of crystal, studded with emerald islands, and adorned with variegated trees and shrubs, forming in many places natural arbours or sylvan arcades of superlative beauty, offering shady retreats from the mid-day sun; here are fringed terraces that overhang "the imaged heaven in the waters,"† and woody vales opening from their banks into the country beyond,—a carpet of grass spreading beneath, green and refreshing, mitigating the heat of the sun which shines over them in the summer months with refulgent splendour; here the water is tenanted by fish of endless varieties, the air by birds of orient plumage, and millions of azure butterflies. Like Windermere, the diffusiveness excepted, the chief characteristics of these lakes are stately beauty and magnificence. Their extraordinary clearness is such that the eye can distinctly see the finny inhabitants of the deep recesses, as they play in shoals,‡ and

"Sporting with quick glance,
Show to the sun their waved coats dropp'd with gold."

How glorious! Lake George, or more appropriately and poetically, in Indian phrase, "*Horicon*," meaning "pure water," the most beautiful of all, which lies asleep and motionless beneath the woody mountains that encircle it, reflecting their images as well as that of the pure heavens in its mirror-like surface, supplies an outline, says an admiring tourist, "which fancy might fill up with a thousand Edens." Though its length is only thirty-four miles, and its width from two to four, the islands it includes number three hundred,§ and vary from ten feet to a mile in length. Many of these are congregated in the centre, thus forming numerous tiny lakes which lie among the hills like clear mirrors in romantic peace and beauty.

To this lovely spot, more beautiful than the fairy creations of eastern romance, while the mystic illusions of the mirage which

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* The Indians think the Islands in the lakes inhabited by spirits, and on this account they esteem them sacred.—*Parley.*

† Calling to mind the scriptural expression, "A sea of glass mingled with fire."—*Vide Milner's Astro.*, p. 126.

‡ So clear are the waters of these lakes, that a white napkin, tied to a lead, and sunk thirty fathoms beneath a smooth surface, may be seen as distinctly as when only sunk three feet.—*Colton's Lakes*, vol. i., p. 90.

§ Lake Ontario has upwards of 1000 small islands.

sometimes spreads its dreamy enchantment over its surface in the summer calms, mixing islands, clouds, and water in strange confusion, the beautiful lines of Southey, on Virginia Water, may be well applied.

> "Soul of these sylvan haunts, delicious lake;
> E'en when the flickering clouds obscure the sun,
> And the sky shows in spots,—give me to muse
> On thy untroubled banks, when the warm air
> Lies like an infant on thy cradling breast.
> Then the gull screams not, but the trilling thrush
> Makes glorious music in thy skirting woods,
> And midst her gusts of song there is a stillness
> Which not a ripple stirs, while the hushed soul
> Hugs up its thoughts, as if it feared to wake
> The spirit that sleeps upon thy quiet breadth.
> Or let me gaze on thee, when the soft moon
> Sheds a perfusive gentleness around,
> While wood, and water, and the cloudless sky
> Lose each their features and peculiar hues,
> In something lovelier than the eye can pierce,—
> A subtle,—viewless,—mute indefinite joy.
> Waveless or rippling, thou art beauteous ever,
> Sweet Lake! and beauteous are thy shadowing banks;
> Thou art a place for pure and gentle thoughts;
> Thou hast a charm to free the entangled heart
> From low and earthly chains; thy calm makes audible
> The voice of Omnipresence."

Nor are the scenes now described altogether destitute of historical and legendary associations. It was near these enchanting lakes that the British and American forces contended in the earlier period of the war with such desperate valour. Fort Detroit, Fort Ticonderago, Crown Point, Saratoga—the melancholy scene of General Burgoyne's surrender, as well as of Andre's execution,—are localities that excite strong emotions in the mind of a stranger as he reviews the cause, progress, and results of this unnatural contest between a great country and her colonists.

Lest the descriptions of the face and general aspect of the country thus drawn should be thought by some to be exaggerated or too highly coloured, the writer once more appeals to the authority of the Earl of Carlisle:—

"North America, viewed at first with respect to her natural surface, exhibits a series of scenery various, rich, and in some of its features, unparalleled; though she cannot on the whole equal Europe in her mountain elevations, how infinitely does she surpass her in her rivers, estuaries, and lakes. This variegated

surface of earth and water, is seen under a warm, soft, and balmy, in some cases, blue and brilliant sky, in all its latitudes with a transparency of atmosphere which Italy does not reach,—with varieties of forest growth and foliage unknown to Europe,—and with a splendour of view in autumn before which painting must despair."

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* Coast of Florida.

ble in America. The shadows are everywhere defined and massy,—the mist lies like a solid substance against the sides of the mountains, whose summits spring up as from a magic base, delineating their sharp or bold rounded outline upon the bright surface of the air.

The summer scenery of the lakes, especially of Lakes George, Michigan, Champlain, and Huron,—the latter celebrated by the poet Noble,—is in some respects like that of Windermere. Here nature is seen in all her virgin beauty. Gay, luxuriant views break upon the spectator as he passes onward over their bosom, like scenes of fairy enchantment, or those produced by the fairy visions of the poets; spots where the genii who roam with printless feet over the dominions of nature (if ever such fairy forms have made their way to the world of twilight) might love to gambol under the light of the moon; Arcadian retreats, where an Actæon might dream of the pine-shaded Gargaphie, its "*fons tenui perlucidus undâ*," and the bright creatures of the mythic world, that once animated the waters of that solitary grot.*

But the fairy and the wood-nymph are alike unknown in America; poetic illusion, save in the immortal verse of her own living bards, Bryant and Noble, has not yet consecrated her glens and fountains, her forests, her uninvaded glooms;—her rivers roll in silence, and even her ridgy mountains lift up their blue summits in unphantomed solitude. Association sleeps, or it reverts only to the vague mysteries of speculation.

Perhaps a restless Indian queen,—"pale Marian with braided hair,"—may wander at night by some highly favoured spring;† perhaps some tall and brawny hunter, "in vestments for the chase arrayed," may yet hunt the hart over certain distinguished ridges, or urge his barken canoe over some cypress-fringed pool;

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* Ovid, Metam 3.

† It is recorded of a beautiful Indian female, as an instance of deliberate suicide, that she threw herself into one of these lakes in consequence of her ardent love for one who proved false to her; reminding the classic reader of Phillis in her ungovernable passion for Damaphoon who describes the crescent bay into which she intended to throw herself, and tells him of her determination and the consequences that should follow:—

"Est sinus, adductus medico falcatus in arcus;
Ultima præcupta cornua molo rigent.
Hinc mihi suppositas immittere corpus in undas
Mens fuit; et, quoniam fallere pergis, erit.
Ad tua me fluctus projectam littora portent,
Occurramque oculis intumulata tuis."—Ovid, Hero. 2.

but all other places are left to the caprice or fancies of the utilitarian.*

Here are seen silvery seas that lie like mirrors, now of sapphire, and now of crystal, studded with emerald islands, and adorned with variegated trees and shrubs, forming in many places natural arbours or sylvan arcades of superlative beauty, offering shady retreats from the mid-day sun; here are fringed terraces that overhang "the imaged heaven in the waters,"† and woody vales opening from their banks into the country beyond,—a carpet of grass spreading beneath, green and refreshing, mitigating the heat of the sun which shines over them in the summer months with refulgent splendour; here the water is tenanted by fish of endless varieties, the air by birds of orient plumage, and millions of azure butterflies. Like Windermere, the diffusiveness excepted, the chief characteristics of these lakes are stately beauty and magnificence. Their extraordinary clearness is such that the eye can distinctly see the finny inhabitants of the deep recesses, as they play in shoals,‡ and

"Sporting with quick glance,
Show to the sun their waved coats dropp'd with gold;"

How glorious! Lake George, or more appropriately and poetically, in Indian phrase, "*Horicon*," meaning "pure water," the most beautiful of all, which lies asleep and motionless beneath the woody mountains that encircle it, reflecting their images as well as that of the pure heavens in its mirror-like surface, supplies an outline, says an admiring tourist, "which fancy might fill up with a thousand Edens." Though its length is only thirty-four miles, and its width from two to four, the islands it includes number three hundred,§ and vary from ten feet to a mile in length. Many of these are congregated in the centre, thus forming numerous tiny lakes which lie among the hills like clear mirrors in romantic peace and beauty.

To this lovely spot, more beautiful than the fairy creations of eastern romance, while the mystic illusions of the mirage which

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* The Indians think the Islands in the lakes inhabited by spirits, and on this account they esteem them sacred.—*Parley.*

† Calling to mind the scriptural expression, "A sea of glass mingled with fire."—*Vide Milner's Astro.*, p. 186.

‡ So clear are the waters of these lakes, that a white napkin, tied to a lead, and sunk thirty fathoms beneath a smooth surface, may be seen as distinctly as when only sunk three feet.—*Colton's Lakes*, vol. i., p. 90.

§ Lake Ontario has upwards of 1000 small islands.

sometimes spreads its dreamy enchantment over its surface in the summer calms, mixing islands, clouds, and water in strange confusion, the beautiful lines of Southey, on Virginia Water, may be well applied.

> "Soul of these sylvan haunts, delicious lake;
> Even when the flickering clouds obscure the sun,
> And the sky shows in spots,—give me to muse
> On thy untroubled banks, when the warm air
> Lies like an infant on thy cradling breast.
> Then the gull screams not, but the trilling thrush
> Makes glorious music in thy skirting woods,
> And midst her gusts of song there is a stillness
> Which not a ripple stirs, while the hushed soul
> Hugs up its thoughts, as if it feared to wake
> The spirit that sleeps upon thy quiet breadth.
> Or let me gaze on thee, when the soft moon
> Sheds a perfusive gentleness around,
> While wood, and water, and the cloudless sky
> Lose each their features and peculiar hues,
> In something lovelier than the eye can pierce,—
> A subtle,—viewless,—mute indefinite joy.
> Waveless or rippling, thou art beauteous ever,
> Sweet Lake! and beauteous are thy shadowing banks;
> Thou art a place for pure and gentle thoughts;
> Thou hast a charm to free the entangled heart
> From low and earthly chains; thy calm makes audible
> The voice of Omnipresence."

Nor are the scenes now described altogether destitute of historical and legendary associations. It was near these enchanting lakes that the British and American forces contended in the earlier period of the war with such desperate valour. Fort Detroit, Fort Ticonderago, Crown Point, Saratoga—the melancholy scene of General Burgoyne's surrender, as well as of Andre's execution,—are localities that excite strong emotions in the mind of a stranger as he reviews the cause, progress, and results of this unnatural contest between a great country and her colonists.

Lest the descriptions of the face and general aspect of the country thus drawn should be thought by some to be exaggerated or too highly coloured, the writer once more appeals to the authority of the Earl of Carlisle:—

"North America, viewed at first with respect to her natural surface, exhibits a series of scenery various, rich, and in some of its features, unparalleled; though she cannot on the whole equal Europe in her mountain elevations, how infinitely does she surpass her in her rivers, estuaries, and lakes. This variegated

surface of earth and water, is seen under a warm, soft, and balmy, in some cases, blue and brilliant sky, in all its latitudes with a transparency of atmosphere which Italy does not reach,—with varieties of forest growth and foliage unknown to Europe,—and with a splendour of view in autumn before which painting must despair."

CHAPTER XII.

NATURAL PHENOMENA.—The Notch on Mount Washington. Hawk's nest. Natural bridge of Virginia. Gorge near Harper's Ferry, Maryland. Maiden Rock. Enchanted mountain in Tennessee. Sulphureted springs in Virginia, Arkansas, Saratoga, Lebanon, &c. Caverns, and subterraneous temples. Remarkable mountains. Catskill Falls. Cascades in Georgia, and on the Mohawk. Particular description of Niagara Falls in summer and winter. Beautiful Rose by Brainard. Reflections.

Natural curiosities and picturesque features in the United States are numerous and striking. It is only possible, however, to select the principal, and we can give them no more than a passing notice.

What is called the Notch on Mount Washington, in New Hampshire, with its silvery cascade, and the Profile Rock,—a desolate mass of granite,—are especially attractive. The latter presents the appearance of a large human head and face, about forty feet from the chin to the top of the forehead, delineated in the solid rock with great exactness;—conjectured by some (though the conjecture is generally discredited) to have been thus shaped by the Indians, and to have been worshipped by them as a divinity. The mass of rock forming this extraordinary profile is said to be eighty feet in height, fifteen hundred feet above the lake, and about half a mile from a spectator on the road; from a certain point of which it appears to be at the top of the mountain, though it is in reality five hundred feet below the summit.

The Hawk's Nest, in western Virginia, a vast mass of shelving rock, is so called on account of its resemblance to the nest of a mammoth bird.

With the great geological phenomenon—the Natural Bridge of Virginia—every reader must be familiar; as also with Wier's and Madison's Caves in the same State; they are, perhaps, among the most beautiful and extensive of the kind yet discovered in the world.

The Gorge near Harper's Ferry, on the borders of Maryland, where the confluent streams of the Potomac and Shenandoah

have worn their channel across the blue ridge of the Alleghanies to the sea, is celebrated by Mr. Jefferson, in his notes of the "Ancient Dominion,"* as one of the most stupendous scenes in nature, and as being worth a voyage across the Atlantic to see.

The Chimney Rocks, on the highway from North Carolina to Tennessee along the broad French River, are also marvellous works of nature. They rise perpendicularly to a vast height, and are about two hundred yards in diameter at the base. Being of sandstone formation, and the water having worn the ridges smooth, they present the appearance of a solitary gigantic pillar of granite rising from the prairies.

Nor must the Cascade in Georgia, called Toccoa, and the series of beautiful and sparkling falls in the deep gorge of Tallulah, be regarded as undeserving a passing observation.

These, and other such manifestations of the wonder-working power of the Almighty, have been well described as epics in the poetry of nature.

The Enchanted Mountains of Tennessee are remarkable for the vivid impressions of human feet and those of lower animals than man upon what is now become solid sandstone rock.

The Sulphuretted Springs with which this and the neighbouring States of Virginia and Arkansas abound, as also those of Saratoga and New Lebanon in New York, are so celebrated for their natural beauties as to require little or no description.

The Virginian mineral waters contain sulphuretted hydrogen and carbonic acid gas, evolved in bubbles, rising at intervals from the bottom of the spring. By analysis, the minerals in combination are found to be sulphate of lime, carbonate of magnesia, carbonate of lime, sulphate of magnesia, chloride of sodium, and iron. Some of the springs are thermal, and may be said to exhibit the same phenomena as the celebrated Fountain of the Sun, near the Temple of Ammon, as described by Herodotus,—viz., that they are warm at midnight and cool at noon-day.

Saratoga contains four great classes of mineral springs: the *acidulous*, which are highly charged with carbonic acid, or acid of charcoal; the *chalybeate*, impregnated with iron, and of an acid taste; the *saline*, composed of different saline ingredients,

* Virginia was so called from its being the first settlement of the English in America.

such as sulphate of magnesia, soda, muriates, and carbonates of soda and lime; and the *sulphurous*, the prevailing character of which arises from the presence of sulphuretted hydrogen, either uncombined or united with lime, alkalies, iron, &c.

The Lebanon springs are similar, excepting that at neither of these are there thermal waters. The temperature of these last-named springs ranges only from between 48 and 51 degrees of Fahrenheit.

The Mammoth Cave in Rockingham County, Kentucky, is remarkable not only for its magnitude, but also for its situation, being found beneath level though broken ground, and not, as such caves commonly are, amidst mountain rocks. For more than six miles you pass underground to the principal area, which contains eight acres, without one pillar to support its magnificent vaulted roof. Many of the rooms are not only covered with sparry incrustations, but are filled with millions of stalactites, descending in all forms from the ceiling, and meeting their stalagmite kindred on the ground, and thus forming splendid crystal columns; while here and there, over the broken rocks, fall beautiful cascades, which feed the quiet lakes that are scattered over the area, occasionally adorned with moss and weeds, and cryptogamic flora, hydropores, confervæ, and occilitoriæ, together with climbing bignonia, fragrant vanillas, and golden flowered banistereas. Though not so celebrated as the ancient Antiparos in the Grecian archipelago, the stones and stalactites of which, like diamonds, are said to throw back the light of torches, it is far more extensive, and is more splendid in appearance than can be well expressed or even conceived, exceeding in every respect those of Elora and Elephanta.

The Monument Mountain, in the route from New York to Barrington by the Housalonic railroad in Connecticut, is celebrated for its relation to the romantic history of a beautiful Indian girl, who, under the influence of a passionate love for one with whom the religion of her tribe would not allow her to be united in marriage, threw herself from the mountain and perished. Every Indian who afterwards passed the place, threw a stone upon the grave to commemorate the event.

The Mammelle Mountain in Tennessee, a natural pyramid, seven hundred feet in height,—the Regicides' Cave in New Haven,—the splendid Waterfalls of the Catskill in New York, of Trenton near Utica (the next to Niagara in beauty, grandeur, and extent),—the falls of the Missouri, tearing

a passage through the Rocky Mountains of three hundred feet in width,—and many other natural phenomena, justly excite the astonishment of every spectator, at the same time that they exhibit evidences of the primitive beauty and power of nature, under the mighty influence of which the mind expands with reverential awe and admiration.

——— "There is a beautiful undying charm
In God's created works; the whispering winds and waves,
The mountain brooks, the creeping grass, the flowers,
And quivering leaves, even to the lowliest things,
Do lisp their Maker's praise."

"Thou great Invisible!
——— Can I view
These objects of my wonder,—can I feel
These fine sensations, and not think of Thee!"

The Catskill Pine-Orchard Fall is on the Catskill Mountains, about three-quarters of a mile above the level of the sea. Here, on the very summit of a rock, is a beautiful and commodious hotel, which in summer is much frequented by travellers. Often on the summit of this mountain the spectator views beneath him the fierce conflict of the elements;—thunder-clouds, with their forked lightnings darting upwards from their bosom, are seen passing along far below him, or reclining in masses at his feet, reverberating with tremendous echo.

Hundreds of meteors, which are never seen on the plains, here present themselves in the fine clear evenings of autumn; and sometimes during the day; and in a peculiar state of the atmosphere, the shadow of the mountain is seen projected upon the body of the air, and the spectator's own image reflected as in a mirror upon the opposite cloud.

In the early morning, as the sun's rays dart into the many valleys which lie between the higher ranges, the stagnant air contained in the low recesses becomes quickly heated; heavy masses of vapour,—dense, white, and undefined,—arise from the hollow, meet over the crests of the hills,—cling to the forests on their summits,—enlarge, unite, and ascend rapidly to the rarefied regions above; a phenomenon so rapidly developed, that the almost sudden disappearance of the stupendous scenery beyond from the spectator's gaze looks like the work of magic!

To the visitors of this magnificent spot who can relish the majesty of nature, nothing can exceed the pleasure of beholding such a splendid spectacle; as also on the close of the day

when they watch the rising cloud and observe the evening spread her grey and dusky mantle over the features of the landscape till they are exhausted and lost, and view the stars as they successively appear through the increasing obscurity. When the sky is clear, the immense vault of the heavens appears in awful majesty and splendour, and the whole scene produces indescribable emotions.

To heighten the beauty and interest of the spot, two miniature lakes, behind the hotel, unite their waters to form a stream which falls one hundred and seventy-five feet into a ravine, and then dashes precipitously in its winding course down the deep gorges of the mountains, concealed for a time beneath the dense umbrage of the jungle.

At the Landville Falls, on the borders of Georgia and South Carolina, is a number of lofty and fantastic cliffs; and among them one vast isolated column, several hundred feet high, around which are clustered in the greatest profusion the most beautiful vines and flowers. This column occupies a conspicuous position a short distance below the Falls, and it is by no means difficult to imagine it a monument erected by nature to celebrate her own creative power.

But the most remarkable and truly wonderful of all natural scenes of magnificence and grandeur are the Falls of Niagara, called by the Indians Oniagara, or Ochniagara; a word signifying "the thunder of the waters."

This mighty river, which, in its subsequent confluence with the St. Lawrence, divides the State of New York and the American territory from Upper Canada, takes its rise in the north-eastern extremity of Lake Erie, and the unknown fountains of the St. Lawrence.

The Niagara forms an outlet of the vast chain of western lakes, chiefly those of Superior, Michigan, and Huron, beginning with Lake Superior, and its hundred tributary streams; and is the principal feeder of Lake Ontario. It drains an area of country, according to the estimate of Professor Drake, of Kentucky, equal to 40,000 square miles; and, the extent of their own surface being 93,000 square miles, the whole area, including lakes and rivers, is not less than 150,000 square miles; with a total descent of not less than 334 feet. The Falls are fourteen miles from Lake Ontario, and twenty-four from Lake Erie—the lakes which the river immediately connects. On the emergence of the river from Lake Erie, its

breadth is about 900 feet, and its current strong and irregular. At the distance of two miles on its course it becomes more smooth and tranquil.

The two branches of the river which encompass Grand Island unite about a mile above the rapids, and thus the river is, between Chippeway and Fort Schlosser, two miles in width, assuming the appearance of a lake, apparently surrounded by an amphitheatre of hills. At Chippeway, a British village opposite to Navy Island,* it suddenly contracts to the width of about one mile, becomes violently agitated, and, as if infuriated by a consciousness of the tremendous plunge it is about to make, it dashes against the rocks that impede its current, and becomes a rushing torrent, broken into cascades and sweeping billows. Forced onwards by its own momentum over a descent of ninety feet, it now rushes with an impetuosity truly awful,—with a power and vehemence that cannot fail to fill the mind of a beholder with sensations both of terror and amazement. From ridge to ridge, from side to side, it bounds, hissing, foaming, splashing, until it reaches the perpendicular rock down which the whole mighty stream suddenly leaps headlong.

But this is not the climax of the spectacle. The entire cataract is in the form of a crescent, or an irregular semicircle. The perpendicular fall is one hundred and sixty feet, and the descent of the rapids immediately above it fifty-seven feet. Nearly on the verge of the precipice the river is divided by Goat or Iris and Prospect Islands, making three distinct falls, and preventing the water from falling in one unbroken sheet. At the bottom of the Falls the fluid mass is shivered by rocky projections into minute particles, assuming an infinite variety of forms, and radiant with prismatic hues. The volume of air carried down by the waters in their descent so greatly diminishes the sustaining power of the element, that only substances of the greatest buoyancy will float in the chasm beneath. One of these cascades alone is one-third of a mile broad: and the breadth of the whole Falls is four thousand feet, or three-quarters of a mile.

The Fall on the Canada side contains the greatest volume of water, being seven hundred yards across, while that on the American side is only three hundred and thirty yards. The

* Celebrated as the seat of M. Noah's famous Jewish colony, containing, as is said, 11,000 acres; and for the occurrences between the Americans and the British, on the destruction of the steamboat *Caroline*.

whole distance over the curve, including Iris and Prospect Islands, is computed at fourteen hundred yards. The height of the cataract on the northern or American side is one hundred and sixty-four feet, and on the western or Canada side one hundred and fifty-eight feet. The fall on the Canada side, which from its greater convexity is denominated the Horseshoe Fall, is the most magnificent as well as the most extensive. The whole vast concentrated tide pours over the tremendous precipice with a roar which is heard in a still but slightly humid atmosphere at the distance of forty miles; and its lofty pyramidal cloud of fleecy vapour, or sea of spray and foam (seen at the same distance), now hanging dark and heavy above it, now wafted away by the current of the wind, reflects all the colours of the rainbow, always brilliant and beautiful, as the sunbeams fall upon the misty curtain, and successively varied as the winds disperse the water-spirit, and shapes it into new phantasmal forms glowing with light and loveliness. Sometimes the mist is thin and gauze-like, with every variety of colour above and below, brilliant with prismatic hues, which arch themselves higher and higher up into the pale blue heavens, or deeper and deeper upon the green water in the abyss. In the clear cold weather of winter, this vast volume of water, touched by the rays of the setting sun, appears in the distance like the flame and smoke of a burning city; whilst its roar sometimes resembles that of the ocean or an overwhelming tempest. Some writers have fancied in it sounds similar to the explosions of artillery, amidst a combination of musical tones. Such, indeed, are its strange mystic thunderings, that they are said to combine with no other sounds,—they are such as could be heard amidst the roaring of the volcano, and yet would not drown the chirping of a swallow.

The position on the American side, from which the Falls are best seen, is that called Point View, from which Vanderlyn sketched one of his great paintings; that also from the Table Rock in Canada, beneath the sheet of falling water, is commanding; but best of all are the prospects from the point of Iris Island, where it overlooks the Horseshoe Falls, and from the tower at the Terrapin Rocks, along the Table Rock,*—the

* So called from the flatness of its surface and resemblance to a table. It was situated at the top, and rose to about forty feet above the cascade. The view of it from this point was truly grand. This immense mass of stone was on the Canada

latter now partially destroyed. The spectator can advance to a great distance behind the cascade by traversing a ledge of the rock connected with the over-hanging cliff; and having arrived at the customary limit, a scene of wonderful and fearful interest displays itself before him. "A curtain of water separates him from the world; a rocky canopy rises far above his head; his feelings are those of a prisoner, but never surely was there so magnificent a dungeon."

The momentum of the whole body of waters may be better conceived, when all the circumstances connected with it are combined. Let the reader, therefore, imagine a column of water nearly a mile broad and twenty feet deep, propelled by the weight of the surplus water of the whole prodigious basin of the lakes,—which contains nearly one-half of the fresh water on the surface of the globe,—rolling down a rapid declivity of fifty feet for the distance of half a mile, and then leaping and pouring over a precipice of one hundred and sixty feet of perpendicular descent, as if falling to the central depths of the earth! How vast is the conception! How overpowering must be the scene, to those familiar with it only from description!

Rather, however, than sublimity, the feeling actually excited in the mind of an observer is silent amazement, or profound reverential awe; many literally hold their breath, in the sudden excitement created by the spectacle. The mind accustomed only to the ordinary phenomena and exhibitions of nature's power, feels a revulsion and recoil from the new train of thought and feeling forced for an instant upon it.

Nature arrays herself in this phenomenon like some angry and irresistible power that has torn itself away from the mighty grasp of its Creator. With the awe and reverence inspired, the mind on first beholding the immensity of the scene is overwhelmed also with a sense of its own utter insignificance and helplessness; for the wild rush of the descending flood is absolutely bewildering. The quantity of water precipitated is 670,000 tuns, or 109,944,000 gallons every minute. The eye distinctly measures the vast mass, and the spectator can hardly

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side of the river, projecting so as to afford the spectator a front view of the Horse-shoe Falls. It was considerably undermined; and fissures on the surface had for some time previously indicated the disruption. But in 1836 a larger mass was detached, completely destroying the most favourable position for viewing the magnificent appearance presented by that stupendous face of waters.—*Fisher's Drawing-room Scrap-book*, 1836. [In 1853 the whole front of the rock fell with a tremendous crash.]

avoid thinking with the peasant, that the fountains of the upper world must be shortly drained down into the yawning gulf; while the classic scholar cannot fail to be reminded of the countryman of Horace, who being unable to ford a river from the impetuosity of its torrent, took up a resolution to wait till the stream had all run by. But this mighty torrent, with resistless force, continues to pour on,—continues to pour down, —in the same mighty, impetuous volume,—with the same unceasing roar; and will thus continue to flow on, as seems its destiny, till time shall cease;—the concentrated, impressive, and amazing symbol of the power of Omnipotence, proclaiming His majesty from age to age.

"In winter these falls present, if not a still grander spectacle, yet one almost equally grand, and much more picturesque. The spray, drifting over the adjacent shores, has transformed the commonest objects into shapes of such fairy-like beauty as is otherwise only conceived in dreams. All things are enveloped in gleaming ice. The islands are laid with a pavement as pure and as solid as the most stainless Parian. The rocks that shoot up from the far depths of the precipice are hooded and wrapped in vast breadths of ice, like monks doing homage to the Genius of Peace. The trees, bound down to the earth by their snowy vestments, are like a worshipping choir of white-robed nuns. Everywhere but in the immediate channel of the swollen and surging river the ice-king reigns supreme. Under his magic touch nature is visibly idealized. Stalactite groves, and towers of crystal, and forests glittering with brilliants and pearls, seem no longer a figment of genius, but a living and beaming reality." *

This stupendous spectacle, viewed under any circumstances, cannot be exaggerated by the most lofty poetical description; and every attempt hitherto made to describe it in poetry and prose have come infinitely short of the reality. The scene is altogether such as to exhaust all the epithets of beauty and grandeur that human language can command in the most laboured delineations.

In its widest scope the subject is suited only for the genius of a Milton, or some poet who could "soar beyond a middle flight," and in sublimest language assert eternal providence, and justify the ways of God to man.

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* Freeman.

It is thus beautifully and impressively, though far from adequately, apostrophized by Brainard:—

"Stupendous cataract!
The thoughts are strange that crowd into my brain
While I look upward to thee. It would seem
As if God poured thee from his hollow hand
And hung his bow upon thine awful front;
And spake in that loud voice which seemed to him
Who dwelt at Patmos for his Saviour's sake,
The sound of many waters; and had bade
Thy flood to chronicle the ages back,
And notch his centuries on the eternal rocks.
Deep calleth unto deep! and what are we
That hear the question of that voice sublime?
O what are all the notes that ever rung
From war's loud trumpet by thy thundering side?
Yea, what is all the riot man can make
In his short life to thine unceasing roar?
And yet, bold babbler, what art thou to Him
Who drowned a world, and heaped the waters far
Above its loftiest mountains? A light wave
That breaks and whispers of its Maker's might."

The writer, when gazing on this stupendous scene, probably for the last time, and standing entranced with the final view, found himself exclaiming involuntarily, and with much emotion, in the words applied by a late writer to Mont Blanc:—

"Farewell, then, O Niagara! still may'st thou move onwards into the lone eternity;—still, while the long ages, morning and evening, light on thee the rosy fires of their perpetual sacrifice; still, while suns shed on thy front the full flood of their perpetual glory, while moons bathe thy countenance in their sleeping beams, while stars weave mystic circles round thy brow, while clouds sail full-bosomed around thee, and thunders exult in their dreadful revelry!

"But thou,—thou art still the same when the poor mortal, and myriads like to him, who bow, and shall bow down before thy mystic presence, with all their hopes and fears, and joys and sorrows, shall be less than the least particle of the elements,—thy scorn!"

CHAPTER XIII.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—Their number and variety. Indigenous trees, shrubs, and flowers. Their peculiarities, as found in different sections of the country.

The trees, shrubs, and plants of America, domestic and wild animals, birds, reptiles, fish, are far too numerous and various for minute detail.

Of the whole number of phænogamous plants,—such as have visible organs of re-production,—and which are estimated at 38,000, Baron Humboldt gives 17,000 to the temperate and tropical regions of America. The United States alone are estimated to contain 2891 species, while only 385 are found in Europe. The immense forests of the more northern part of the Continent contain trees, tall and straight, of extraordinary height and girth, like columns of a vast Gothic cathedral, whose mysterious winding aisles, overhung with an impervious foliage, form lofty, vaulted, magnificent arcades; amongst them are pines and firs of every variety; oaks of several species; walnut and chestnut; yew, ash, beech, cypress, elm, willow, poplar, alder, lime, with others common to the other continent, but often of different species; they are found in vast profusion, often, as already said, loftier, of far greater dimensions, and bearing different leaves and fruit to those of the same names in Europe.

In the neighbourhood of the lakes are chiefly found the pine, spruce, hemlock, maple, oak, elm, and tamarak; and towards the more western regions, the sycamore, hickory, sugar-maple, together with a profusion of wild vines that in summer interlace the forests. The dark green foliage of the fir of these forests contrasting with the bright green of the hickory, maple,* chestnut, and other deciduous trees, renders their appearance inconceivably beautiful. The hard woods in the west principally consist of oak, ash, elm, maple, hickory, poplar, basswood, cherry, and large quantities of cedar.

* Sugar maple is found mostly in New England, and west of the Rocky Mountains.

Among the trees and shrubs peculiar to this region that are of a highly ornamental character, are the plane,—the laurel or calico tree—its bloom of indescribable beauty,—the magnolias,—the tulip, commonly called whitewood tree,—the magnificent large-leafed, umbrageous vallombrosa, compared with which the far-famed floral giant of that name in Tuscany is insignificant,—the acacias, with numerous shrubs and plants of such floral splendour and magnificence as become the primitive possessors of a virgin soil. Among the latter, together with foliage plants, which depend more upon their leaves for their beauty and interest than upon their flowers, are the sassafras, the red mulberry, the wax, with the several species of honeysuckle.

One attribute of the exquisite floral beauty of the thousand lakes which gem the western part of Michigan, and belonging to a considerable extent to those of larger dimensions, is that their surface is ornamented with lilies, red, white, and yellow, in bud and full bloom, and other aquatic flowers of various shades of yellow, with here and there the freshest tufts of green weed, and the edge of the water fringed with the numerous rich-leaved plants which have their native habitat in such situations. Among the most luxuriant and beautiful of the first-named plants are the broad-leafed water-lily and wild lotus, which seems akin to the celebrated Victoria Regia that flourishes so magnificently in the southern rivers; while among the islands, and on their banks, are strewn the rose, the violet, the lily, the magnificent sun-flower, asters and gentians, the purple and scarlet iris, the blue larkspur, the mocassin flower, the crimson and green lichen; with mosses, flowers, and vines, too various to have yet obtained a name.

In the forests of the warmer regions, in addition to many enumerated as found in the west, are the palms, the magnolias (both umbrella-leaved *tripetala* and *grandiflora*), the cedar, the mahogany, the wild orange, the deciduous cypress, cotton-wood, poplar, oaks, mulberries, elms, willows, coffee-bean tree (a *phaseolus*,—the giant of peas and beans), sweet-gum, locust, and others of the family of acacias and mimosas, the lime or linden tree, the double flowered horse chestnut, the laburnum, the black walnut, with numbers of other species that attain an amazing altitude and bulk. The black walnut tree in Western Virginia, near the Ohio, grows to the height of 100 feet from the ground to the branches; its trunk of an enormous size, and the fruit surpassing anything of the kind in the East.

The grape vine here attains the size of three feet eight inches in circumference, and the common sumach one foot in diameter. But the sycamore is the king of the Virginian forest; one being found in Mucus-bottom, Madison County, sixteen yards in circumference. In the cultivated districts is the cotton-plant of commerce, together with fruit trees of almost innumerable varieties, from the orange to the apple; the climate and soil being adapted to the production and sustentation of vegetable life common to both the temperate and torrid zones; while at the same time, none of the European fruit-bearing species are natives of America, but were introduced into the country by the early European settlers. The principal indigenous fruits and vegetables are the potato, the maize, tobacco, the banana, the love or tomato apple, the strawberry, and the medlar.

All the fruits of the Old World, indeed, have been naturalised and cultivated in different parts of the New, and flourish to an extent and with such success as to rival the gardens and conservatories of Europe. Here are nectarines, apricots, peaches, apples, pears, and the choicest plums, together with vegetables, with one or two exceptions,* fully equal to those produced in the gardens and conservatories of England.

Among the underwood and parasitical plants of the species corcoon and arum, wild fig and vanilla of the southern forest, are the saw-brier, the thorny *robinia pseudo* or false acacia, green brier, and supple jacks—vegetable pests, forming a combined mass of vegetation, which, from their thorny surface or flexile serpentine convolutions, render the uncultivated districts impenetrable, from the danger of strangling or laceration.

In the lagoons and woods near the banks of the river St. Mary in Georgia, the forests abound with splendid trees of live oak and bay, cypress, black gum, and ash.

Between Georgia and Florida, in the morass, one hundred and seventy-five miles in circumference, called by the Indians the O Refonoco Swamps, are forests of amazing stateliness and grandeur, so entwined and interlaced with flowering and other parasitical plants, as to present a barrier of parterres or hanging gardens in the air.

The flowering trees and shrubs peculiar to the southern part of the Union most distinguished for their floral splendour, are

* Among some other European vegetables, turnips are said not to thrive in the United States.

the *cornus Florida*, with its mass of snow-white blossoms; the *yucca gloriosa*, distinguished by its bell-shaped clusters still more delicately beautiful; the odoriferous *olea fragrans* from Peru; the brilliant flowery azaleas; the umbrella-leaved magnolias *(tripetala)*, with their massive snowy crowns in contrast with their sober, dark green laurel leaves; and the *catalpa*, with its flowery covering of yellowey white. Andromedas, with their beautiful bell-shaped rosy flowers, which droop as if abashed by the admiration they excite; the arbutus, or strawberry tree *(arbutus unedo)*, covered with bell-shaped, half-transparent flowers, with its fruit resembling strawberries; together with the *ledum hydrangia*. Added to these are the China tree, or pride of China *(melia azedarak)*; the French yoke wood *(bignonia leucoxiton)*, covered with large pink or purplish flowers; the blue mahoe (*hibiscus arboreus*)—a timber tree of vast size and of great splendour, covered with flowers as large as the orange-lily of European culture, the flowers tinged with yellow, red, and orange hues, presenting an assemblage of floral magnificence before which the renowned tulip trees of Strathfieldsaye must hide their diminished heads. Many of these splendid creations, in the recesses of the forest, are covered with flowers, not on the *head* only, but over all parts of the trunk and branches, with *Cactaceæ* and *Orchidaceæ* of many species displaying their gorgeous and matchless charms of colour and form, dazzling the eye with their beauty, and delighting the sense with their perfume.

With many of the forms of vegetation in the Northern and Middle States of North America a European may be familiar, if not from his own observation, yet from the efforts of the artist's pencil; but not so with these more gorgeous forms developed under the favouring climatic conditions afforded by proximity to the tropics. Millions are here "born to live and blush unseen."

Of FLOWERS there are the red, white, and yellow jessamine; the celebrated hundred-leaved rose *(rosa centifolia)*; the white Cherokee rose *(kudbeckia)*; the beautiful South-sea rose *(nereum)*; the white Indian creeper; the lagerströmia, with its pale red flowers; together with others of the family of Tellandsia. The magnificent grandiflora cape jessamine *(gardenias radicans)*, is unsurpassed in the whole varied range of vegetable perfumes for delicacy and sweetness. There is also the bromeliacious plant (*Pitcairnia*), displaying spikes of long scarlet blossoms; with the numerous genus of the class *Melastoma*, of which

there are one hundred and twenty species in the warm parts o the world. In kalmias, the very woods are rich; as also i rhododendrons, the arboreum, and the catawbiense—the latte so named because found in the greatest abundance on the bank of the river Catawba in Virginia. The cactus, or prickly pear the Virginian creeper; the myrtle, or five-leaved ivy (*ampelopsi hederacea*); the Virginian evening and China primrose (*godelia rubicunda*); the different species of acacia (*grandiens, pul chella, &c.*), with their globular tufted flowers; the *euphorbia splendens*, camellias, and pelargoniums, or, as the latter ar popularly called, geraniums, are particularly attractive.

The tribes of orchidaceous plants undoubtedly rank among th most interesting and wonderful of all vegetable productions; the are the richest of our floral treasures,—whether we consider the vivid and rich colouring, their grotesque aspect, their singula structure, or the exquisite perfume of their flowers,—not to mention their wonderful assemblage of cells and vessels which can preserve organic life in them for a thousand years!

Nor is their mode of growth less extraordinary. A great number of the most splendid, being parasitical, attach themselves by their snake-like roots to the trunks of living or decayed and fallen trees, investing them with an inconceivable wealth of colour and fragrance, so that these flowers are the chief beauty and glory of the tropical forest,—their summer-like luxuriance blooming with all the freshness and delicacy usually peculiar to the flora of spring.

The most beautiful and magnificent of these, and that which is considered the queen of all the race, is what is called in England the cattleya mossiæ, which unites in itself every admirable quality that can grace a flower.

The celebrated pitcher plant (*sarracenia purpurea*), with its long, broad, patulous leaves, must not be omitted in this enumeration. It is the *nepenthes* of the tropics, called the wild plantain. By botanists it is denominated a *syphon* plant, from the peculiarity which it possesses of absorbing water by capillary attraction for the supply of its pitchers. It is thus described:—"A herbaceous plant, with thick roots, and a simple stem crowned with bunches of flowers. The leaves have no footstalks, but partly embrace the stem at the base, and are terminated by tendrils, each of which supports a hollow vessel of an oblong shape, which is covered with a top like the lid of a box. These singular appendages contain each about a

wine glassful of clear, wholesome, well-tasted, and particularly refreshing water. In the morning the lid is closed, but it opens during the heat of the day, and a portion of the water evaporates: this is replenished in the night, and each morning the vessels are all full." It seems that these fountains are designed by an all-bountiful and gracious Providence to cheer and supply birds and other inhabitants of the remote and often parched regions.

In these semi-tropical primeval forests is the life of nature seen indeed in its luxuriance; but here is, also, as so justly described by the fair author of "The Homes of the New World," the realm and reign of Pan—the old pagan god of nature, in all its entirety; a reign which embraces both the good and the evil, life and death, with the same love, and which recognises no law and no ordination but that of production and decay.

Beneath the verdant leafy arches, which overshadow the waters that steal through their solitudes, lie the peaceful tortoise and the cruel alligator waiting for its prey. Elks inhabit these natural temples, and in close neighbourhood are panthers, tigers, and bears.

Around these columns of leaves and flowers wind the rattle-snake and the poisonous mocassin; and these beautiful romantic forests are full of venomous and noxious creatures.

Towards the Rocky Mountains and the far north, as also on the summits of the highest lands both in the temperate and semi-tropical regions, the orange, the sugar cane, the cotton, and the myrtle, give place to another character of sylva and flora; the chief representative of the former is the pine tree,—of the latter the *asclepias tuberosa*, the rhododendron, kalmias, andromedas, and the American *arbor vitæ*; with numerous asters and mosses, lichens, and fungusses. Besides these there are alpine and arctic plants specifically identical with those of northern Europe. It is a result of actual observation that the culminating point of the Rocky Mountains, called the South Pass—a region which is 7400 feet above the sea—is found to be embellished by a profusion of artemisia, especially a *tridentata*,* and varieties of asters and cactusses, which cover the micaceous slate and gneiss rocks.† In many places green mosses clothe the overhanging precipices, whose brilliant capsules lighten up even to brightness their refreshing verdure; while boreal plants, which

* Nuttal. † Humboldt's Views of Nature.

only find appropriate conditions where constant humidity an intense cold-are combined, present, near the banks of streams o rivulets, a galaxy of beauties.

Here in this New World it may perhaps be said, although I is regarded by naturalists as possessing a comparatively smal indigenous flora and fauna, that the horticulturists and florist of Europe are supplied in a far more comprehensive manne than in the old hemisphere, with a knowledge of the vegetabl physiognomy of the whole world. While the high and norther lands of America present all the species of northern Europe those numerous varieties of rubiaceæ, euphorbiæ, and legume which so naturally increase as they approach towards the equato are seen in the south in all their varieties, and decked in a their richest splendour.

Among the trees and shrubs that clothe the highest peaks o the Alleghanies towards the south, are pines of the genu *kalmia latifolia*, and the *vaccinium frondosum*, or wortleberry The slopes of the ridges are covered with chestnut, hickory walnut, linden, locust, *robinia*, pseudo acacia, oak (red an white); and the plains with nearly all the magnificent produc tions which so strikingly characterise the scenery of the torri zone. The bamboo here waves its colossal plumes; luxurian palms and ferns shoot their feathery tufts of flowering frond far up into the pure heaven; whilst the branches of other tree infinitely varied in magnitude and kind, are loaded with curtain of forest moss and parasitical plants pendent to the ground.

At one season the different species of magnolia form the mos beautiful objects in the scenery of the forests, especially th magnolia grandiflora, the tulip-tree or lily-tree of the Frenc Canadians *(liriodendron tulipefera.)* And what an orna mental appendage to the transatlantic forest is the wild tame rind;—a timber tree, with dark green leaves doubly pinnated having much the appearance of the English yew, with lon pods of the hue of coral, open and furnished with seeds o ebony, hanging in thousands from the branches! But of all tree east of the Mississippi, the great laurel is the most remarkabl for the beauty of its form, the magnificence of its foliage, an the soft splendour of its flower.

The *Pinus Douglasi*, forming extensive forests of vivid gree throughout the Western States, is a tree of great beauty, o magnificent aspect, and of almost incredible proportions. Thi arboreal giant seems, like the *Wellingtonea Gigantea* o

Professor Lindley, as far to exceed the trees of the surrounding forests, as the cotton tree *(bombax ceiba)* or baobab of the tropics surpasses the common heath shrub of the temperate zone. It is of such magnificent height, as well as of such an enormous bulk, that the stems of some of them rise from sixty to an hundred feet high before they throw off a single branch.

Of the diversity, richness, and luxuriance of the vast forests now existing the untravelled European can form no just conception. Every tree has a character of its own, its peculiar foliage and tints often quite unlike those of the trees which surround it.

In the highest of the southern Alleghanies, also, such as Trail Mountain and the Blue Ridge, both from five to upwards of six thousand feet above the level of the sea, the ascending scale of vegetation from the tropical sugar cane and spices to the arctic lichen and the whole race of cryptogamic plants and mosses, is seen in almost as complete a picture as by the traveller in the Andes, or on the borders of the frozen ocean.

"——— Living flowers
Of loveliest hue spread garments at the feet."

Innumerable gentians variegate the emerald turf, and the blushing tufts of dwarf rhododendrons *(rose des alpes)* are scarcely less plentiful on their summits; the whole character of the vegetation having no more affinity to that of the lowlands than it has to that of the arid plains at the foot of the Andes; and still less, perhaps, to that of Europe. Some specimens of European genera may be seen in these districts, and, finding a congenial soil and climate, may there flourish; they are only naturalized, however, and are not indigenous.

Sometimes the rhododendrons are seen not as dwarfish shrubs but as magnificent trees, in all their blaze of beauty, amidst forests of pine and oak, presenting masses of deep, cold, green foliage, studded with flowers of warm blushing red, rivalling in luxuriant richness of tint and flower the most beautiful specimens of flowering trees ever seen in any region.

It may be here observed that the development of different families of plants, and the distribution of organic beings generally over the surface of the earth, do not depend alone upon the great complication of thermal and climatic conditions, but also upon geological causes which continue almost unknown to us.

Milton has represented Adam in Paradise, when arriving at the full perfection of all his senses, as astonished at the glorious appearances of nature,—the heaven, the air, the earth,—together with his own bodily frame,—and led by the contemplation of these to ask whence this wonderful scene arose.

"Oh, then what soul was his, when on the tops
Of the high mountains he beheld the sun
Rise up and bathe the world in light;—he look'd—
Ocean and earth,—the solid frame of earth
And ocean liquid mass, beneath him lay
In gladness and deep joy. The clouds were touch'd,
And in their silent faces did he read
Unutterable love. Sound needed none,
Nor any voice of joy;—his spirit drank
The spectacle. Sensation, soul, and form
All melted into him;—they swallow'd up
His animal being;—in them did he live,
And by them did he live;—they were his life.
In such access of mind,—in such high hour
Of visitation from the living God,—
Thought was not;—in enjoyment it expired.
No thanks he breathed,—he proffered no requests;
Wrapt into still communion that transcends
The imperfect offices of prayer and praise,
His mind was a thanksgiving to the power
That made him;—it was blessedness and love."

Strange that these wonders have not uniformly the effect of leading man to the contemplation of the Great Cause of all!

To the naturalist who walks abroad, looking through nature up to nature's God, what sources of devout gratification and instruction do such scenes supply!

" —— Not a flower
But shows some touch in freckle, streak, or stain,
Of His unrivall'd pencil. He inspires
Their balmy odours, and imparts their hues,
And bathes their eyes with nectar, and includes
The forms with which he sprinkles all the earth.
Happy who walks with him! whom what he finds
Of flavour, or of scent, in fruit or flower,
Of what he views of beautiful or grand
In nature, from the broad majestic oak
To the green blade that twinkles in the sun,
Prompts with remembrance of a present God."

"The works of the Lord are great, honourable, and glorious: sought out of all them that have pleasure therein."* "The

* Psalm cxi. 2, 3.

book of nature, as well as that of revelation," says Bishop Watson, "elevates our conceptions and incites our piety; they mutually illustrate each other; they have an equal claim to our regard, for they are both written by the finger of the one eternal and incomprehensible God; to whom be glory for ever."

CHAPTER XIV.

Zoology.—Animals peculiar to America. Their diversity. Number. Indigenous and foreign. Wild and domestic. Insects. Fish. Reptiles. Birds.

The whole animal system of America is equally distinguished with its forms of vegetable life, by variety and profusion.

The zoology of America, indeed, is very peculiar and diversified, differing, as much as its flora and arboreta, in many important respects from that of the Old World. But though like the other continents America is distinguished by zoological peculiarities of its own, determined, perhaps, more or less by its geological aspect, it is yet marked by many of the features that also belong to other parts of the world. Many families of animals are so extensively distributed as to be almost equally characteristic of the most opposite regions.

Of about one thousand three hundred and fifty mammals that have been described and classified, America possesses about five hundred and forty. But, with few exceptions, the new hemisphere, on its discovery, was found remarkably deficient of useful animals. Neither the horse, ox, sheep, hog, nor even the domestic fowls (excepting the turkey, which was originally wild), were seen by Columbus or his contemporaneous discoverers. All the domestic animals have been introduced by European settlers; and some of these have increased to such a degree that they form herds in a wild state, swarming the prairies and other uncultivated tracts.

The most remarkable animals within the boundary of the States are the opossum and the beaver, the racoon, the glutton, and the sloth; the wapeti, or American elk, whose antlers are sometimes seven feet in length; the prong-horned antelope, the ocelot, the lynx, the bison, and the musk ox; with the black, brown, and grisly bear. The last-named of these (*ursus ferox*) is the most powerful and dangerous wild animal of America, possessing amazing muscular power and extreme tenacity of life. Specimens have been killed and measured which have been found equal to the largest size of the Polar bear, though

there is much variety in the dimensions of the different individuals. They abound in the Rocky Mountains, and places east of them to six degrees. They secrete themselves in caves, where during winter they remain torpid. They subsist principally on the succulent or edible roots of the wild pine. These animals are of such gigantic size that some of them have been found to weigh 800 lbs.; while the skin of one that was killed by a hunter is said to have measured eight and a half feet in length. The average may be taken at about 500 lbs. weight. The claws, which they have the power of moving independently, cut like a chisel when the animal strikes with them. The tail is so small as to be scarcely visible. Such is its strength, that it has been known to drag easily, and to a considerable distance, the carcase of a bison weighing 1000 lbs. These bears do not hug their victims, but strike them with their terrific paws. When one of these animals sees an object he stands erect upon his hind legs, and generally gazes at it for some minutes. He then, whether it be man or beast, goes straight on towards it regardless of numbers, and will seize it in the midst of an armed batallion.

The following incident in relation to one of the least ferocious of these species of animals, as well as illustrative of life in the backwoods, may not prove uninteresting:—

"A farmer in one of the backwood settlements being engaged, together with one or two assistants, in clearing some additional land on the outskirts of his farm, felled among others a large hollow tree. While standing at the stump of the tree, when his companions proceeded to cut off the branches, he cast a glance into the cavity, and discovered something that had the appearance of a living animal, though from the obscurity of the hollow he could not distinguish the genus to which it belonged, but supposed it to be a racoon, an animal often found in similar situations. He immediately divested himself of some of his clothing, and crawled into the tree with the intention of satisfying his curiosity, and of making a prize of the intruder whoever he might be. He had not advanced far when his progress was obstructed by the animal which disputed his right to enter; and the pressure at length became so great that the farmer was forced to a hasty retreat, which he was not long in effecting; although almost simultaneously with his own exit he perceived a bear of unusually large dimensions forcing his way after him in great wrath. The sudden and unexpected appear-

ance of so formidable an antagonist disconcerted the farmer for the moment, so that he did not seize the advantage that his axe afforded, then lying beside him. But he soon found that something must be done, and that quickly, in self-defence at least. Bruin, though still appearing much displeased at his disturbance by the farmer in his bivouac, seemed disposed to end the difference by a speedy retreat, and was just about effecting it when his assailant grappled him round the body with his arms. The bear became additionally angry at this unceremonious treatment, and taking advantage of the unguarded situation of his antagonist, by a desperate movement of his fore paws, freed himself from the grasp of the courageous farmer, but, still inclined to leave the field without further controversy, made towards a more secluded and quiet resting-place and home. The farmer recovering from the fall, and nothing daunted by the scratches he had received and the evidence he had acquired of the superior prowess of his adversary, immediately pursued and overtook him, when the conflict recommenced. The farmer now a second time grappled the bear round the body with his arms, as though to detain him until a satisfactory explanation could be had. This was too much for bruin, and he began to be in real earnest. Just at this juncture the companions of the farmer, who with a laudable regard for their own safety had retreated at the onset of the engagement, seeing the perilous situation of their employer flew to the rescue, levelling blows at the head of the bear, which soon brought him to the ground. They almost immediately despatched him, taking off his scalp as a trophy. He was in good condition, as well as large in size, weighing between two and three hundred pounds. The farmer was severely wounded in the affray, but not dangerously; and he lived many years afterwards to boast of his exploit."

The black bear, the black and grey wolf, the elk, the moose, and the deer, the otter, minx, white-fisher, racoon, martin, the rabbit, with a variety of squirrels, are still abundant in the regions of the lakes, as also a small species of monkey in some of the Southern States; but the panther, the grisly bear, the buffalo—or more properly the bison, and musk ox *(bos moschatos)*, the latter said to be a variety of the English cow, and used in breeding with European cattle, are found only occasionally in districts where cultivation has extended; while the beaver has now become almost entirely extinct.

In North Carolina, however, wolves are said to abound, inhabiting the swamps on the slopes of the Alleghanies. Eighteen of these animals were killed by settlers in the district during last year, in their attempts on the hogs of the farmsteads.

These animals once roamed fearless through this domain, as there was none to dispute with them their inheritance; but they have long since retreated before the axe of the woodman, and the busy scenes of towns, and villages, and corn-fields, created by the art of man.

The vast savannahs and prairies towards the south of the Rocky Mountains, and the wild steppe-lands of Nebraska and Kansas, with other almost wholly unappropriated regions, are also still covered with herds of bisons, elks, moose, antelopes, and deer of different species, with argali or wild sheep and goats; the former generally understood to have been introduced from Europe. But the argali or wild sheep are supposed by some naturalists to have migrated from Asia, over the ice at Behring's Straits, being identical with the Asiatic species now existing; though by others they are thought to be the original savage stock whence the domestic variety has descended. Thus the Asiatic argali, the *ophis ammon* of naturalists, which was the ophion of the ancients, and the *ophis pagargus* of the mountains of western America, is said to be the same with the *tragelaphus* of Africa and the *mousimon* or *moufflon* of Buffon, of the large islands of the Mediterranean; and they all equally seem to bear evidence of being primitive races, and all readily breed with the domestic animal. The argali differs as much from the domestic sheep as the wild boar from the domestic hog, being equal in stature with the deer,—assimilated in habits and manners to the wild goat,—and having large convoluted horns. Like animals of kindred species it feeds principally on the tender grass that springs up after the fires which frequently desolate the plains. These regions also swarm with various kinds of the lesser quadrupeds; the ermine, the skunk or weasel, the otter, the racoon, the opossum, the fox, the musk-rat, the marmot or prairie dog, and the sloth.* The latter is a most remarkable animal, combining several peculiarities of conformation which are to be met with in no other part of the creation. There are, however, comparatively few of the smaller ruminating animals in America, but it

* The sloth is supposed to be only now found in South America.

abounds in the rodent or gnawing tribes, on which the carnivorous animals partially subsist.

Indigenous carnivorous mammals, such as the bear, the wolf, the panther (*felis discolor*), the lynx, the spotted wild-cat (*felis rufa*), so destructive to the young domestic stock of the backwoodsman; and the puma or American lion (*felis concolor*),* which bears so strong a resemblance to the African lioness, and which, with the grisly bear found in no other portion of the globe, probably surpasses its kindred of other countries in ferocity, though mostly inferior in strength and size, are numerous in all the uncultivated and unfrequented parts of the country, especially in the middle and more southern ranges of the Alleghanies, as well as in the Rocky Mountains, where scrubby pine and dwarf cedar (*juniperus prostrata*), with their rooting branches, form an almost impenetrable underwood; but they are found more particularly in California, among the mountains and valleys of the Sierra Nevada, and in the original forests spread over the several elevations of the chain from Louisiana to the Carolinas, running north-east and south-west.

One of the most formidable enemies to the farmer is the wild hog; but perhaps the most cunning and destructive of the wild animals is the prairie wolf,—a distinct species (*canis latrans*), between a fox and common wolf. It inhabits the still unpeopled territories that lie between the Mississippi river and the shores of the Pacific Ocean, in the wooded ravines of California and the Rocky Mountains. These animals pursue their prey in flocks; and the tales of their sagacity and cunning almost exceed belief.

It is remarkable, however, that there are no quadrupeds in America that can compare with the most gigantic species of the other hemisphere;—nothing like the elephant, hippopotamus, giraffe, or rhinoceros. Nor are there in the northern divisions of the continent, monkeys or apes, or even serpents of the boa and anaconda species peculiar to other climes.

Bones, however, as will be hereafter seen, have been found embedded in the soil, of animals that have no existence in the present day,—as the great mastodon, found in Louisiana; the tapir, allied to an extinct species called the palæotherium;

* The puma (*felis concolor*) is said to inhabit the southern and middle regions of the States. It is called the American lion; but though free and graceful it is deficient in that haughty, stern, decided bearing which renders the lord of the African forest so truly majestic. It is even distinguished by an opposite content.

an animal in Ohio not unlike the elephant; and other quadrupeds, which evidently roamed over the country not many centuries since, or are the buried ruins of a former world.

At the same time it may be here observed, that America has not only produced in former ages other orders of animal existence, but also vegetable life in forms that are now extinct.

Of the North American river animals, such as the bull-frog, varieties of turtle, &c., little need be said.

While the woods and fields display all the beauties and utilities of nature, and sometimes resound with the melody of birds, they are rendered dreadfully insecure in the less populated regions by the venom of serpents, and the deadly powers of destructive tribes.

The uncultivated tracts to the south swarm with the most noxious reptiles,—snakes, alligators, scorpions, and centipedes, —all of which are much more dangerous and much larger than any which occur in corresponding latitudes of the Old World, or even in the West Indian Islands. Of these reptiles, the rattlesnake and the alligator are the most formidable and dangerous. The former comprises five or six different varieties, and is proverbial for the deadly venom of its bite. Besides these, seventeen species are said to have lately appeared in South Carolina alone, though not all venomous. The alligator, or American crocodile, harbours in the southern rivers, and is sometimes found twelve feet in length.

In the Egyptian mythology, the scorpion is represented as the symbol of the genius of evil; and certainly of all the obnoxious of the reptile tribes none is so repulsive as this animal in its appearance and habits.*

Scarcely less forbidding in its aspect, or less venomous in its bite, is the centipede *(scolopendra morsitans)*, called by its popular name erroneously, from the miscalculated number of its feet. This reptile is sometimes found in the States a quarter of a yard in length,—commonly six inches,—and about the thickness of the finger. It is covered with a soft down or hair, and, apparently destitute of eyes, is furnished with two antennæ or feelers with which to supply the deficiency of sight. The head is round, and the mouth furnished with two sharp

* The best antidote to its venom or sting is vulgarly said to be rum, in which one or more of its own species is steeped. Hence a phial containing this remedy is often found in the cottages of the poorer classes in the West Indies.

teeth or fangs, with which it inflicts the wounds which render it so formidable.*

Insects of almost endless species, some of them so noxious as to render whole tracts of land almost uninhabitable, and so numerous as to cover the whole of the uncultivated earth, swarm in the more temperate regions as well as nearer the torrid zone.

Musquitoes and sand-flies, at particular seasons of the year, are even more formidable here than in the West Indies; and in the marshes and mangrove swamps of Florida and other provinces of the south, every pool of stagnant water is covered with struggling vermin; while the houses in these localities swarm with ants, cockroaches, and other creeping abominations.

Butterflies in some of the Southern States appear in such swarms as seems to justify the assertion of a celebrated naturalist, that "if nature had not formed numerous and powerful checks to this insect, its increase in three years would fill the world." Nor are they distinguished only for their fecundity. Their variety and beauty also are almost beyond belief. The *heliconia charitonia* is distinguished both for its beauty and singularity of form. Its contrasts of colour are more brilliant than can be conceived—yellow, lemon, and velvety black. The most splendid is the *emperor* species, the colours of which are of exquisite tint, and its wings like dotted pearl. It is thus beautifully described in Latin verse by Archdeacon Wrangham:—

> "Proles arbusti, papilio ut forem
> Violas, et lilia et roseas halens
> Erraticus, usque de flore, ad florem
> Quæ pulchra, quæ suavia sunt, osculans."

Bees and wasps, in all their varieties, are numerous in the forests; and the former are extensively cultivated throughout the Union.

The rivers, lakes, and bays abound with fish in endless variety, the principal of which are unknown to European ichthyology; and with the innumerable lesser fry, they have also their share of the monsters, or sovereigns and princes of the

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* A sailor who was bitten by one of these reptiles felt excessive pain, and his life was supposed to be in danger. He, however, recovered by the application of roasted onions to the affected part—a very favourite remedy with sailors for the stings and bites of reptiles.

deep. Among them, not generally known, is a species of sun-fish, of prodigious size and strength,—probably identical with the colossal ray or devil-fish of the tropic waters, and presenting a possible explanation of the fabulous kraken of the Scandinavian seas; there is also, as reported, the celebrated sea-serpent; whilst the whale, and that vampire of the ocean, the shark, abound in all their varieties of form and species.

Among the fish of the lakes and northern rivers, those which are the most valued by epicures are the black bass or rock-fish, the maskelonge (a fish of a mackerel flavour), the sea-trout, the salmon-trout, the salmon, perch, pike, and white-fish, the sucker and the mullet. Others of excellent flavour, such as the cat-fish, large red horsesucker, buffalo, cod, halibut, sturgeon, together with thousands that cannot be detailed, are generally distributed throughout the country. Added to these are shell-fish of endless variety, and innumerable other tenants of the waters.

The pearl fisheries were formerly a great source of wealth to their possessors, but for many years past they have been of so little value that they are nearly all abandoned.

Birds are numerous; but no where in the New World, whatever the temperature of the climate, do they seem generally to possess the gift of song. The American forests, throughout every portion of the Union, are dreamy, lifeless solitudes, over which seems to brood an eternal sleep. As in the West Indies, the principal singing-bird is the American nightingale, or mocking-bird *(Turdus polyglottos)*, called by the Indians concontalolly, or the hundred-tongued. It is a species of thrush, of which there are several varieties. But in the United States, as in the West Indies, the forest or the lone wood is not the haunt of this celebrated warbler.

> "——— His strain
> Flows for the tenant of the plain
> And cultivated mountain. He
> Awakes not with his melody,
> The gloom of the deep woods,—the lone
> Recesses where the wild doves moan,
> The untrodden solitudes,—the peaks
> Untenanted. The haunts he seeks,—
> The gardens that to man belong,—
> And cheers the labourer with his song."

Among the feathered tribes distinguished for their beauty of plumage, are the ivory-billed woodpecker (*picus principalis*);

the blue jay, the bitter enemy of the owl, and, like its kindred species in Europe, possessing great capabilities of vociferation and mimicry; the black and red birds; the king-bird and the humming-bird. The ivory-billed woodpecker is not only remarkable for the beauty of his appearance, but also for the dignity of his bearing and his almost incredible powers of destruction. The humming-bird, which is distinguished both for its minuteness and for its beauty of form and plumage, is found in the States, as in the West Indies and the Southern Continent, in almost all its numerous varieties. Scarcely less splendid in tint is the Baltimore oriole, than remarkable for its pensile, pendent nest. The scarlet tanager or Virginian nightingale (*Pyranga rubra*), the whole family of brilliant cardinal birds, so called from the splendour of their colours, and the Carolina parrot, with others of equally superb plumage, seem to hang on the trees like a brighter kind of blossoms, and rival in lustre rubies, emeralds, and sapphires.

Among those of the varieties unknown to European ornithology, or to that, probably, of any other part of the world, are the nightingale or mocking-bird, the humming-bird, the blue jay, the butcher-bird or shrike, the whippoorwill, the pennant-winged night-jar, the tanager, the wild turkey,* the cliff-swallow, and the burrowing owl.† The swallow and the night-jar are distinguished by the peculiarity of their migrations, and the burrowing owl for its habitat in the villages of the marmots.

In the far, deep, cool sylvan bowers that skirt the lakes, the soul of the wanderer is often expanded and soothed by the cooing of the turtle dove; lulled into melancholy by the monotonous dirge or shrill reiterations of the whippoorwill, so deeply interesting from its associations with Indian mythology; or thrown into ecstasy by the mimicry and liquid melody of the mocking-bird.

The prairie and pinnated grouse, the canvas-back duck (that *ne plus ultra* of the gourmand), the wood duck (*anas sponsa*), with its magnificent crest, eider duck (*anas mollissima*), together with the beautiful teals (*anas decoris*), pheasants, partridges, quails, and wild geese, are among the general deli-

* It has been said that not only the turkey, but also the duck and goose of Europe are descended from the wild breeds of America.

† For the character and habits of this bird (the burrowing owl), which is principally found in the trans-Mississippian forests, see Lucien Bonaparte on Wilson's American Birds.

cacies of the table. The largest aquatic bird is the wild swan, which is sometimes found of a weight between thirty and forty pounds.

Wild fowl of the genus *Columba*, so widely diffused over both the temperate and tropical regions of the earth, here abound. Thus there is the bald-pate (*Columba leucacephala* of Lin.), and the pea-dove (*Columba zenaida* of Bonaparte),* whilst those particularly of the passenger species are so numerous in some districts, that they may be said, like the army of Xerxes, to darken the sun, or, more poetically, that in their flight the light of noonday becomes dim as under an eclipse.

> "Their rising all at once is like the sound
> Of thunder heard remote."

According to Mr. Wilson, the celebrated ornithologist, they sometimes desolate and lay waste a tract of country forty or fifty miles long, and five or six broad, by making it their breeding place.

While in the State of Ohio, Mr. Wilson saw a flock of these birds, which extended, he judged, more than a mile in breadth, and continued to pass over his head at the rate of one mile in a minute during four hours, thus making the length about two hundred and forty miles; the whole flock, according to his moderate estimate, amounting to 2,230,272,000 pigeons!

In their swift motion they create a current of air, and produce a rushing and startling sound like a cataract. These flights constitute one of the most remarkable phenomena of the western country. The woods are sometimes loaded from the top to the bottom with their nests. For a great number of miles, the heaviest branches of the trees, broken and fallen to the ground, are strewed with young birds, dead and alive. A forest thus loaded and half destroyed by these birds, presents an extraordinary spectacle; but when they are on the wing, often wheeling and performing evolutions almost as complicated as pyrotechnic movements, and creating whirlwinds as they move, they present an image of fearful power.†

Mr. Audubon, another celebrated naturalist, also testifies to

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* This bird is fully and beautifully described by C. Lucien Bonaparte in his American Ornithology, of which there are such exquisite engravings in plate 17 of vol. iii.

† Featherstonehaugh's Tour of the Slave States.

this fact. "When on the banks of the green river in Kentucky, where the trees are of great magnitude, and where there was little underwood, the air was literally filled with pigeons."

Aquatic birds, *palmepides* and *grallatores* (web-footed and waders), swarm over the coasts and inland waters. The most gorgeous specimens of feathered life, in endless variety, harbour in the beautiful recesses of the lakes and woodlands.

The chief birds of the rapacious kind (*accipitres*), are eagles, vultures, hawks, and falcons (*falco anatum* of Bonaparte, and *falco Columbarium*, the former similar to the Perigrine falcon of Europe), and owls; and of the *Grallæ*, there are loons, bitterns, cranes, &c.

The crane is the scourge of the cornfield in the far west; the black vulture or turkey buzzard (*cathartes aura* of Illiger and Cuvier), as in Jamaica, and some other of the West India Islands, is the scavenger of the districts he inhabits; and the designations of the duck or great-footed hawk and the pigeon-hawk, are sufficiently indicative of their propensities.

The white-headed eagle (*haliæetus leucocephalus*) frequents the cliffs and forests of this vast continent in the neighbourhood of the sea. It subsists principally on fish, but often on the smaller stock of the farmer, and on carrion, contrary to the rest of the eagle species. This bird is peculiar to America, and it is not a little singular that it was selected as the national emblem. "For my part," says Dr. Franklin, "I wish the bald eagle had not been chosen as the representative of our country. He is a bird of a bad moral character; he does not get his living honestly. You may have seen him perched on some dead tree, where, too lazy to fish for himself, he watches the labour of the fishing hawk; and when that diligent bird has at length taken a fish, and is bearing it to his nest in support of its mate and young ones, the bald eagle pursues him, and takes it from him. With all this injustice, he is never in good case; but, like those among men who live by sharking and robbing, he is generally poor, and often very lousy. Besides, he is a rank coward; the little king-bird, not bigger than a sparrow, attacks him boldly, and drives him out of the district. He is, therefore, by no means a proper emblem for the brave and honest Cincinnati of America."

The fish-hawk (*pandion haliætus*), also indigenous to America, is the harbinger of fine weather and of abundance to the fisherman.

The great-eared owl (*bubo maximus*) is chiefly found along the mountainous shores of the Ohio and in the deep forests of Indiana. As soon as the evening draws on, this screeching solitaire startles the weary pilgrim as he slumbers by his forest fire, "making night hideous" with his din.

In this enumeration of the birds of the New World, it can scarcely fail to appear remarkable that no bird of the ostrich kind is found throughout its whole extent, unless we except the rhea of the southern division of the continent, of the family *Struthionidæ*, which more resembles the emeu of New Holland, or the cassowary of the Indian archipelago, though by some classed as of the same species as the ostrich.*

Nor can it fail to be thought equally singular that the family of the *Brevipennes* is seldom to be met with in any part of the continent. Mr. Wilson, who has diligently studied the ornithology of the United States, speaks of six kinds indigenous to the country; namely, the grakle, tanager, turkey, parrot, manaken, and humming-bird.

Most of the birds here named are similar to those of the West Indies; but while many of them are identical with those in Jamaica, numbers are also specifically distinct. At the same time, many of the former migrate to the warmer regions of the tropics. Among these are the rice-birds of the Carolinas, the wood-thrush, called by the labouring people the May-bird (*turdus mustelinus*), the Carolina cuckoo, the fulvous or cliff swallow, the tyrant fly-catcher, the whippoorwill, and the scarlet tanager; these, with many others, pay their annual visits to the shores of the West Indies, and relieve the solitude of their woodlands during several months of the year, and some of them make two migrations to tropical regions during that period.

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* Very recently, however, two specimens of what are described as the real American ostrich are reported to have been killed at Verde de Mounce, in Iowa; they stood five feet high, were four and a half feet long, and had bills six inches in length, straight, and very sharp.

CHAPTER XV.

Sec. I. General Geological Features of the Continent.—Composition, structure, position, and disposition of rocks. Prevailing character of mountain formations. Hypothesis as to the origin of the great mountain ranges. Supposed relation between those of America and Europe. Peculiar geological and mineral character of the different States. Great metalliferous belt, its extent. Gold deposits. Copper and lead mines. Coal fields and beds. Anthracite and bituminous. Fossil quadrupeds and mammiferous animals. Where discovered. Descriptions of the different species. Indian legends of a monster animal of a former age. Gigantic fossil cetaceans. Remarkable cemetery of animal remains. Specimen of the genus cervus converted into a siliceous fossil. Silicified plants. Fossil fishes. Crinoids.

Sec. II. Vast fossil cypress forests in New Orleans. Their frequent occurrence in the alluvions of the Mississippi and in Louisiana. Fossilized human skeleton. Supposed antiquity of the submerged forests. Peculiar circumstances connected with them. Collection of human bones in Virginia. Indian Herculaneum and legend. Fossil impressions on sandstone. Vast fragments of fossiliferous rock in sulphureted springs in Virginia. Travertine rock. Stalactites. Petrified masses. Fresh water shells. Deposits of marine shells in the interior States. Discourses of interesting geological phenomena as connected with Canada. Infusorial deposits in rivers. Volcanoes. Earthquakes. Reflections.

SECTION I.

The leading features in the geological structure of America are as follows:—First, a continuous belt of high mountains and plateaus traverses its western border, from Behring's Straits to Terra del Fuego, forming the most uninterrupted extent of primitive mountains in the world. The northern portion, consisting of the Rocky Mountains, appears to be chiefly granitic; while in the Cordilleras of Mexico, and the Andes of South America, the primitive strata are, for the most part, covered with immense accumulations of transition porphyries, trachytes, and lavas, the products of numerous volcanoes, many of which are still in constant activity. Secondly, a wide expanse of low and generally plain country succeeds immediately on the east to the above-mentioned zone of mountains, through which, in both continents, flow some of the most magnificent streams in the world. This region consists of immense deposits of newer rocks, over which is thrown everywhere, like a mantle, the alluvial formation, or a covering of sand and gravel, with which are intermingled rolled masses of rocks. Thirdly, a chain of mountains of lower elevation and irregular con-

tinuity, forms the eastern boundary to the low country, the principal masses and highest points of which are composed of granite. Fourthly, the clusters of islands occupying the seas between North and South America, which are almost, without exception, of volcanic origin,* complete the list of geological peculiarities.

The geology of the United States presents little of a special character. Rocks of the primitive, transition, secondary, and tertiary classes have for the most part the same general composition, structure, position, and distribution as in Europe and Asia; as have also the more recent formations,—volcanic, diluvial, and alluvial,—which are supposed of later date, and consist chiefly of fragments of rock broken to pieces by the action of either fire or water.†

The Rocky Mountains, which are regarded as continued in the Andes, extending to the Straits of Magellan, are partially covered with sandstone, consisting of the ruins of granite. They are thus of the primitive order.

It is conjectured by some geologists that the grand ranges of the mountains of the earth have risen from below, through rents in previously existing strata; and that not all at once, but at different times; and, further, that all mountain ranges having the same general direction, have made their appearances from below at the same time; so that the Alleghanies, since the general direction of their ridges (not of the entire *chain*) is parallel to the great circle which joins Natchez to the Persian Gulf, would seem to belong, in respect to date, to the Pyreneo-Appenine system, for the ridges of the Pyrenees and the Appenines have this same direction. And it is the opinion of Adolph Erman, that in some cases an American and an Asiatic mountain chain may have resulted from the same internal fissure, and have been erupted by the shortest channel. Elie de Beaumont, to whom this ingenious speculation is primarily due, has been able to verify the accuracy of some of these inferences from the descriptions of American geologists.‡

The springs and gaseous waters in the centre of the Alleghanies, and certain peculiarities of the White Rock Mountains, such as their horizontal fossilliferous strata, are regarded as

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* Facts, by Sir Richard Phillips.
† Excursion in the Slave States by Featherstonehaugh.
‡ Facts, by Sir Richard Phillips.

evidences of the theory of their upheaval by some vast internal commotion.

Along the whole chain of the Alleghanies, which have their south-western termination about two hundred miles from the Gulf of Mexico, and run through the continent in the general direction of north-east far into the part of Canada which lies south of the St. Lawrence, the rocks are principally of secondary formation: they abound in trap, sandstone, limestone, and all the aggregates which belong to this peculiar class; as well as in their ordinary accompaniments—coal, arborescent fossil forms, gypsum and salt, lead and iron.

In the White Mountain chain of New Hampshire, and the Green Group of Vermont, between which lies the rich valley o Connecticut, and which are the north-eastern commencement o the Alleghanies, the rocks are of granite, with some veins o mica, talc, and schist, that run between the masses of th primitive formation; and from the prevalence of this rock i New Hampshire it is called the "Granite State."

Mount Washington, the highest of the White Mountain and some other parts of the chain, consist largely of marbl slate, and limestone, abounding in organic remains. Trap, an a species of iron-stone, of the secondary series, which appea to have been formed by the action of fire, are common in Ne England. Near Amherst, in New Hampshire, is an elevatio of above one thousand feet above the Connecticut river, com posed of pudding-stone; and the small stones within it, various sizes and colours, are round and smooth as thoug washed by the ocean. In the vicinity of New Haven, t semi-capital of Connecticut, are bold bluffs of trap rocks, risi almost perpendicularly to the height of from three hundred four hundred feet, standing forth in gloomy grandeur amid t brilliant forests,—the ruins or the pyramids of primeval ag Diamond Island, in Lake George, is almost entirely formed crystalized quartz, from which it receives its designation.

The ridges of the chain which traverse the interior of t State of Pennsylvania are principally secondary, thus renderi the State of Pennsylvania more abundantly productive mineral wealth than any other in the Union. It is remarkab however, that beds of chalk of this formation, so common England and on the European continent, are not found in t United States.

New Jersey, Long Island, and Delaware, possess indicatio

of tertiary formation,—sand, clay, marl,—which contain, if not oolite (of which some geologists dispute the existence anywhere in America), yet lignite and gritstone,—the remains of marine animals; together with vast quantities of shells, corals, fishes, and other organic deposits. The highland range on the Hudson is composed principally of gneiss, and is supposed to have formed originally the south shore of the Great Lake, extending north beyond Lake Champlain in Vermont.*

Tertiary deposits, indeed, extend over a great part of Maryland, and along the coast of the north-west of New England. The tertiary beds of Maryland abound in the usual types of European tertiary,—marine shells, &c.,—which present a striking analogy to those of the Paris and London basins.† It is remarkable that the city of Charleston is built upon geological formations identical in age, as well as otherwise similar, to those upon which the cities of London and Paris are located. The river Patapsco, in this State, flows over beds of granite, clay, slate, and gneiss;—the latter in some places containing small transparent garnets. Sometimes limestone occurs resting upon deposits of tertiary rocks, marly clays, and limestone with organic remains, resembling those met with in the tertiary deposits on the north shore of the Mediterranean.‡

The palæozoic occurs in the north western portion of the State of Georgia, and appears referable to the carboniferous and the upper silurian formations. The crystalline rocks occupy the largest portion of this State, and are the most important of its formations, both with regard to agriculture and mineral products.

The Blue Ridge of the Alleghanies, the centre of the range, and which has an elevation of four thousand or five thousand feet, with its summit two miles wide, is of limestone formation; alternating with slate, hornblende, greenstone, and other ancient slaty materials; sandstone boulders and pebbles,—the remains of strata once forming an integral part of the whole highlands, similar to some of the formations in the State of New York, abounding in imbedded minerals and fossils apparently contemporaneous with them; and are supposed to belong to the silurian system, as formed by Sir Roderick Murchison and Professor Sedgwick. The whole of the ridges in this locality

* Mitchell's Geography. † Mantell's Geology.
‡ Featherstonehaugh's Slave States.

have an anticlinal structure, by which the super-position of th rocks is greatly disturbed.

That part of the chain in front of the Atlantic, and whic may be properly called the Atlantic primary chain, in distinc tion from that inclining to the central parts of Virginia, an which is more properly designated the South-west Mountain consists of a mixture of talcose, quartzose, hornblende, green altered epidotic rocks, ancient sandstones, and chlorite slates exceedingly intersected with strong quartz veins; being als non-fossilliferous, it is in the strictest sense of the word, an according to the received opinions of the most accredite European geologists, to be classed among the primary rocks, i the sense that these have preceded the formations containin fossilliferous beds.*

On the other hand, the ridges which immediately succeed t the west of this Atlantic primary chain, consist of fossilliferou beds and sedimentary rocks without exception, and undoubtedl belong to the formations which have hitherto been called tran sition, and which Sir Roderick Murchison has now included i his system of silurian rocks.

Extensive tracts of transition series exist also in many part of the States, abounding with all those simple minerals existin in similar formations in other countries;—calcareous rocks, wit fossils like those of European transition; and mountai carboniferous limestone.

The Cumberland Mountains, in Tennessee, are of much th same formation as the Alleghanies, but with masses of compac blue limestone, as in the town of Sparta, for example.

The mineral structure of the State of Arkansas is curious an novel; anthracitic coal is found in most of the valleys, and a the foot of ridges conforming to the flexure of the strata; while the country being undulating, the horizontal non-fossilliferou limestone is always found in the valleys, and silicious rocks o the highlands; and in many places a beautiful novaculite of pearly semi-transparent nature, opalescent in places, lies in ver tical laminæ, presenting singularly pure, glossy, natural face and occasionally tinged with metallic solutions.†

The banks of the Missouri consist of strata of clay and loam exhibiting, also, various beds of fossilliferous limestone, though to be the equivalent of carboniferous limestone in England

* Featherstonehaugh's Slave States. † Ibid.

Here also is seen a substitution of silicious for calcareous matter, which is very striking, as also in the northern part of Arkansas.

Limestone and sandstone compose the secondary formations of a large portion of the level of all the vast extent of country drained by the Mississippi. All the rocks west of this mighty river have also a strong tendency to a silicious character, associated with iron. Near the Rocky Mountains the whole surface of the ground is strewed with rocks of gneiss, mica slate, and white granite.

The general order of the strata throughout the Southern States is but a repetition of the ordinary succession of slates, limestones, and sandstones; the last of which are very ferruginous. Sometimes the surface of the summits of the mountains consists of slate, at other times of sandstone; the modifications which the ridges have received appearing to be in proportion to the violence of movement which has elevated them, and the subsequent action of the retiring waters.

Limestone generally forms the bottom of the valleys; but where the ridges have taken an anticlinal form, and have been dislocated, the limestone has been often found on their flanks.

In New York a steatite, or soap-stone, has recently been found, which is likely to supersede everything else as a building material. It is so soft that it can be cut with a chisel, planed, bored, sawed, or turned by a lathe. At the same time, it will resist very considerable pressure, particularly when mixed with harder ingredients.

Trending in a south-west direction from the Potomac, the Alleghanies form a metalliferous belt, extending from this river to the heads of the Telapoosa in the State of Alabama, passing through the intervening States of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. The length of this belt is six hundred miles, and its breadth eighty miles.

In every part of this extensive line, gold is found in alluvial deposits, and in various streams; whilst the contiguous rocky strata abound in quartzose veins, more or less auriferous.

Gold is found, indeed, at intervals from Canada to Georgia, a distance of one thousand miles, and though insignificant in quantity as compared with California, it occurs under the same conditions. Very recently it has been discovered in the head waters of the Red River, in the territory west of Arkansas, as also in the sweet waters in the great Salt Lake valley.

In Georgia and the Carolinas it is uniformly found imbedded in, or associated with quartz rock, forming veins in the talcose and micaceous schists and altered sandstones, and in pyrites consisting principally of gold. The general trend of the old metamorphic rocks in the United States is northward by southwest, and the gold veins conform to this general direction.*

It has been very recently ascertained by a party of American citizens returning from an exploring expedition, that there is gold also in Texas, in mountains seventy miles north of Galveston. It was found both on the surface and by digging. This party brought back, as an evidence of their discovery, several specimens, which were valued at 5950 dollars. They added, that the deeper the digging the more abundant was the ore.

Gold is sometimes, though to an inconsiderable extent, found in ores associated with silver, lead, copper, iron, and zinc; with quartz, granite, slate, oxide of iron, and sulphate of iron. This principally occurs in Virginia, North Carolina, Missouri, Illinois, and in the White Mountain districts of New Hampshire. It has also recently been discovered at Bridgewater in Vermont.

In the vicinity of several of the gold mines are threads of crystalized or transparent quartz, as well as real rock crystal. In some of the mountains of the Southern States lie hidden, it is supposed, as in the Andes, unimaginable quantities of silver, iron, copper, and quicksilver; waiting but the application of science and the hand of industry for their development.

"Iron is abundant. At the Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob, in Missouri, there are, according to careful estimates, *above the surface*, 420,000,000 of tons of superior iron ore. How immense the quantities *below the surface* cannot be determined."

Very extensive copper mines are also found near Bristol, in Connecticut, in which three hundred men are employed; and it is supposed that if they were more properly and vigorously worked, they would give employment to thirty thousand miners. At Litchfield, in the same State, a mine is said to be still more extensive and valuable, a net profit having been already realised from it of 120,000 dollars.

Near Lake Superior the country abounds in rich copper ore, —in agates and corneliana,—and there have been discovered, along the shores of the latter, large quantities of magnetic iron.

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* American Year Book of Facts in Science and Art, 1850.

In Michigan is the finest copper mine in the States: at the cliff near Lake Superior masses have been broken up of sixty or even eighty tons in weight; its abundance almost exceeds belief. The whole district of the Lakes, indeed, is said to be the richest in the world in mineral wealth. Burton's lead mine, in Louisiana, is so extensive, that the mineral is calculated to cover two thousand acres; while mineral resources remain yet undiscovered, among the rocky solitudes of the mountains, of inconceivable extent and value.

Lead mines were once worked in Missouri and Illinois; and those of the latter State are said to have been greatly important and valuable; but, owing to some unknown circumstances, they are now, and have been for some time abandoned. Lead is abundant in Wisconsin and Iowa; and a rich vein has lately been discovered in some excavations on the line of Ogdenburgh, Clayton, and Rome railroad, in the vicinity of Redwood, New York.

Still more recently, a mountain of mineral paint was discovered near Ely Town, Alabama, which is described as almost inexhaustible; as also in the Bridgewater Mountains, New Jersey; the latter composed of silicia, alumina, and peroxide of iron, in chemical combination. This paint is stated to be perfectly fire-proof. Its other properties are said to be, adhesiveness, flexibility, and durability, affording an effectual protection against rain, sea-water, and damp, and becoming, after a few months' exposure, hard and lasting as stone.

The rarest minerals in the United States are brookite, the arkenstite of Professor Shepherd, as also tellurium and solenum, the latter of which has only recently been found in the States.

With the exception of the tertiary subcretaceous areas, the other mineral formations in the United States do not rise higher in the geological column than the beds of the carboniferous series; the entire oolite being absent.

Coal fields are found on the banks of the Potomac and Ohio, in the Kentucky rivers, and in some other localities. In the north of Kamar territory, on Naheman River, there has lately been discovered a fine vein, three feet thick. It has also been found near Little Rock, in Arkansas. The Cumberland coal basin, in Tennessee, lies in the trough or valley formed by the two ridges into which the Alleghany range forks as it advances in a north-easterly direction towards Northern Virginia, and, crossing the western part of Maryland, enters Pennsylvania.

It is, indeed, said that the coal regions of America are divided into three principal masses:—First, the great central tract, extending from Tuscaloosa, Alabama, to the west of Pennsylvania, and being apparently continued to New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. The second tract strikes north-westward from Kentucky, crosses the Ohio, and stretches through Illinois to the Mississippi River. A third region, smaller than the others, lies between the three great Lakes—Erie, Huron, and Michigan. And in all cases they conform to their place in the geological series of rocks belonging to England, having sedimentary strata beneath them. In some places the coal itself lies upon a coarse granite of the porphoritic kind, containing great quantities of red crystal of felspar, resembling the Shapfell granite of England.

The coal is of two qualities,—bituminous or cannel coal, burning with a bright and vivid flame; and anthracitic or stone coal. In the Alleghany Mountains of Pennsylvania, the latter is seen imbedded in a ferruginous sandstone, and is commonly known by the name of Peach Orchard, or Peach Mountain coal; the former is more abundant on the hills around Pittsburgh, along the banks of the Ohio, and in Massachusetts.

The coal fields of North America exhibit the singular and striking geological phenomenon of a carboniferous area fifteen hundred miles long, and eight hundred miles broad, divided into two bituminous districts by an elevated belt, in which the central part of the coal has lost its bitumen, through the agency of the force which raised it from below.*

These coal fields have been otherwise described as the Ohio, the Illinois, and the Michigan. That of Ohio is seven hundred and forty miles long, and one hundred and eighty miles wide; covering an area of sixty thousand square miles,—a surface greater than that of England and Wales. The Illinois coal field covers an area of five hundred thousand square miles; and the Michigan occupies fifteen thousand square miles. Inexhaustible beds of excellent coal underlie a large part of the western valley. Professor Swallow, late geologist for Missouri, estimates the coal beds of that State as sufficient to supply 100,000,000 tons per annum for thirteen hundred years.

The elliptical coal area, by the Pittsburgh seam, is two hundred and twenty-five miles in its largest diameter; while its

* Featherstonehaugh, vol. ii.

maximum breadth is about one hundred miles; its superficial extent being about fourteen thousand square miles.

Besides these, as already intimated, there are anthracitic basins in Pennsylvania and Virginia; the farthest being one hundred miles from the Ohio coal field. The anthracitic field is five thousand feet deep, and contains fifty seams of coal. The bituminous coal field of Ohio is two thousand eight hundred feet deep. The working of these coal fields is increasing very rapidly; three million tons of anthracitic, and one million tons of bituminous coal are raised annually.

Very recently, pure anthracitic coal has been found in the waters of Patterson Creek, in the county of Bottelourt, Virginia, near the James' River and Kenawha Canal, which it is supposed will confer a great benefit upon the mercantile interests of the State. There has also recently been found a vein of this mineral in Pocotalico Creek (a tributary of the Kenawha in the same State), rising in a wall of from ten to fifteen feet above the surface of the earth, smooth, and nearly perpendicular, stretching out to an immense distance, and dropping down to a depth as yet unknown.

Mineral wealth lies buried everywhere in the bowels of the earth, which needs but the true divining rod of organized and scientific labour for its discovery.

Although it cannot perhaps be said that the United States abound with fossil quadrupeds and mammalian animals, carrying the thoughts backward beyond the limits of recorded time, and far into the earth below the dust of the representatives of the human race, many specimens have nevertheless been found.

M. Koch, a geologist of Gottingen, discovered, in 1846, in the State of Alabama, at the depth of eleven feet below the surface of the ground, the complete fossil skeleton of a serpent, one hundred and twenty-five feet six inches long, the vertebræ of which are from twenty-four to thirty inches thick, and eighteen inches in circumference. M. Koch is of opinion that the animal must have lived in the sea, and that it was carnivorous; a conclusion that tends, perhaps, to establish the fact of the present existence of the sea-serpent, so generally regarded as fabulous.

In the museum at Philadelphia is a fine specimen of the mammoth. This wonder of the animal creation was found in the spring of 1801, at Newburgh, on the Hudson, or North River, in the State of New York; that part of the country abounding in morasses. Another was discovered by Dr. Mitchell, of New

York, in the town of Goshen, in Orange County, about sixty miles from New York, in a meadow of vegetable mould.

At a later date, the skeleton of a huge mastodon was dug up near Ploughkeepsie, in the State of New York; another proof that whole herds of that animal once existed in the valley of the Hudson; while within the last few months some bones were exhibited in New York which were discovered underground, in the valley of the Mississippi, the jawbone alone weighing upwards of twelve hundred pounds. This jawbone must have belonged to some such animal as the *behemoth*, described in the fortieth chapter of the Book of Job.

A fossilized jaw has been discovered in Indiana, which Professor Agassiz describes as of a kind heretofore unknown; and belonging to some extraordinary kind of shark, allied to the sword-fish. He regards the discovery of almost as great importance in fossil ichthyology as was that of the ichthyosaurus and plesiosaurus in fossil erpetology.

A new species of fossil footmarks has been found in the Connu Valley, made by an animal not less extraordinary than the newly-discovered shark. Professor Hitchcock calls it the gianbipus cauditus,—the tailed giant biped. The length of the footmark is sixteen inches, and the distance between the steps thirty-nine or forty inches; and the furrow made by the tail is distinct and unbroken.

Professor Gibbs, of Carolina, a natural historian, has a collection of the remains of antediluvian creatures, among which are the megatherium and mastodon dug up in that State;—Titanic creatures, whose single tooth is as large as a human hand. He also asserts that eight species of mosasaurus have been found in different States of the Union.

In what is called the basilosaurus bed of the Charleston Basin, was found the most perfect skull yet discovered of the gigantic fossil Cetacean, and which has determined the true character of this wonderful animal; besides isolated teeth and bones of basilosaurus, dinotherium, methagerium, equus, and nearly fifty species of shark. The bed of the Charleston Basin has been pronounced by Professor Agassiz the richest cemetery of animal remains he had ever seen.*

There are, however, what are termed bone-caves, or caves of fossil bones, near Carlisle, and in the Susquehanna, in Pennsyl-

* American Year Book of Facts in Science and Arts, 1850.

mia, filled with those of wolves, foxes, rabbits, bears, musk-
ts, otters, lynxes, panthers, beavers, &c. Besides the remains
f mammalia, there are also numerous vestiges of other
rtebrate animals; birds in great quantities; wild turkeys of
normous size: some of the latter must have weighed thirty or
rty pounds.

A paper was lately read before the Geological Society of
ondon, on the geology of Georgia, which described the alluvial
acts along the coasts of that State, with their sunken forests, as
rgely abounding in fossil mammalian bones. And in every
stance the fossil bones have been found in the inland swamp
luvium, near to the bottom, and resting on a yellow or white
nd of post-pliocene age. The burr-stone, or bitoides lime-
one formation of Georgia, has also been adverted to. The
etaceous formation is known by its mosasaurus, and other
ptilian remains, and occupies but a small extent of country in
is State.

Skeletons of the great mastodon, or animal of Ohio, not un-
ke the elephant, are found in the bogs of Louisiana, and in
ew Jersey; in the latter place they were imbedded in black
rth. In the construction of the Rutland and Burlington
ailway, in Vermont, a fossil elephant, of the Asiatic species,
as found in a state of good preservation.

Near the Rocky Mountains, bones of the genus *cervus*, have
een found converted into a silicious fossil, together with various
ecimens of silicified plants, the evident physiological remains
f a former age.

Some curious specimens of mammoth fossil remains have
een lately discovered underground, in Texas, larger than the
ammoth, or behemoth, and proving indubitably, if evidence
ere required, the existence of an extinct species of animals.

In the soft argillaceous limestone of the same State are seen
ssil footprints, as distinct as if they had been made in plastic
ay. The stride is so long, that a man of ordinary size can
ith difficulty leap from one footprint to another. They are
robably like those discovered in the red sandstone formations
ade by an extinct species of bird. The adjacent strata con-
in many marine fossils, among which are the ammonite, nau-
lus, and gryphite.*

In the States occupying the valley of the Connecticut from

* Featherstonehaugh.

New Haven to the north line of Massachusetts, a new red sandstone occurs; as also in the plains between the Mississippi and the Alleghany mountains; which contains carboniferous shale, with numerous plants belonging to the fossil genera, of calamited cycopódites, voltzea, feucoides; and bituminous shale, with fishes resembling those of Mansfeldt in Germany.*

The Potsdam sandstone, which forms the basis of the lower silurian rocks of the New York series, has usually been considered the oldest of the fossiliferous rocks in the geological formations of America.

Fossil crinoids have been discovered in the carbonaceous and silurian strata of the State of Tennessee, and show a wonderful development of that form of animal on the shores of the rivers during the palæozoic period. Thirty-one genera have been discovered, sixteen of which are considered comparatively new.

SECTION II.

In excavations made in New Orleans, and in the abrasions of the banks of the Mississippi, successive growths of cypress timber have been disclosed. Cypress trees of ten feet in diameter are not uncommon in the swamps of Louisiana; and one of that size was found a short time since in the lowest bed of the excavation at the gas-works at New Orleans. Some burnt or charred wood was also found at a depth of sixteen feet; and at the same depth the workmen discovered the skeleton of a man: the cranium lay beneath the root of a cypress tree belonging to the fourth great level below the surface, and was in good preservation. The type of the cranium was that of the aboriginal American race.†

Dr. Bennett Dowler has made an ingenious calculation of the last emergence of the site of the city of New Orleans, in which these cypress forests play an important part. He divides the history of this event into three eras. (1) The era of colossal grasses, trembling prairies, &c., as seen in the lagoons, lakes, and sea coasts; (2) the era of the cypress basins; and (3) the era of the live-oak platform.

Existing types from the Balize to the Highlands show that the land was developed from the water at successive periods in

* Mantell's Geology.
† Westminster Review, July, 1854.

the order we have named in belts: the grass belt preceded the cypress, and the cypress was succeeded by the live-oak.

Supposing an elevation of five inches in a century, which is about the rate calculated for the accumulated detrial deposits in the valley of the Nile during seventeen centuries (as tested by the Nilometer mentioned by Strabo), we shall have fifteen hundred years for the era of aquatic plants until the appearance of the first cypress forest, or, in other words, for the elevation of the grass zone to the condition of the cypress basin; so that a careful calculation of the successive periods of these eras, during which ten subterranean forests, with the one now growing, have been formed, establishes that an exuberant flora existed in Louisiana more than 150,000 years ago, and that the Mississippi then laved the magnificent cypress groves with its turbid waters. It is calculated, however, by Messrs. Dickson and Brown, that in some of the filled-up cypress basins only 4,000 years need have passed since the first cypress tree vegetated on them. Directly above these cypress forests, stately live-oaks now flourish, as living witnesses of the slow progress of each successive formation; the present not having changed its level for generations and ages.*

In one of the caves of Virginia were found deposited a great collection of human bones, imbedded in plaster, in the immediate vicinity of a bed of slate, with granite and limestone strata only a short distance off, the whole constituting a conglomeration unexampled in geological experience and research.

Within this plaster bed was found the remains of an unknown animal, which must have been of unprecedented dimensions: one of its teeth measuring ten inches in length, and weighing four pounds and a half, and found only three feet below the surface.

It is not improbable that it is this animal to which the Indians refer in the following legend prevalent among some of the tribes. It is said, that "ten thousand moons ago, when nothing but the gloomy forests covered this land of the sleeping sun, long before the pale men, with fire and thunder at their command, rushed on the wings of the wind to ruin their garden of nature, when only the untutored beasts of the wilds, and men as untamed, were lords of the land, a race of animals was in being, huge as the frowning precipice, cruel as the bloody

* Westminster Review, 1854. Article: Art, Science, &c.

panther, swift as the descending eagle, and terrible as the angel of night; the pines crushed beneath their feet, and the lakes shrunk when they quenched their thirst; the rapid javelin in vain was hurled, and the barbed arrow fell harmless by their side; whole forests were laid waste at a meal."

Another attractive feature consists of a kind of Indian Herculaneum, where, deeply imbedded in sand and clay, are the remains of a town, whence have been brought to light a great variety of earthen vessels and curious utensils.

Upon this spot, also, many shells have been found, which are said never to have been seen except on the shores of the Pacific.

For details of fossil fishes, which are very abundant, the reader is referred to the great work of Professor Agassiz, for which he was awarded the Cuverian prize.

Thus in the New World, as well as in the Old, the geologist finds himself surrounded by the relics of a time when passing seasons and fleeting years marked not the lapse of duration, but whose mighty epochs were recorded by the successive formation and extinction of whole worlds teeming with rank vegetation and gigantic animal existence.

In some of the sulphuretted springs and dry mountain brooks of Virginia and Tennessee, are numerous fossil impressions on sandstones—products, encrinites, &c., with vast fragments of fossilliferous rock.

By some of these springs, masses of travertine rock abound, which open into vast caverns, displaying numerous depending stalactites resembling fillagree work, and petrified mosses, produced by the spray of a cataract, or the filtrations of the water through the rock; and along some of the beds of the rivers, in the district of Holston particularly, agates and cornelians are found.

Towards the sources of almost all the rivers and streams in the interior of the Southern States, and which mostly take their rise and flow exclusively over silicious minerals, or where calcareous matter is comparatively scarce, many of the varieties of fresh-water shells occur, especially those of the genus *Unio*, one of the divisions of the family of the *Naiades* of Lamarck; as well as an elegant species of univalve (*fusus fluvialis* of Say); and which, though considered by some a distinct species from those of the more simple type found in the Atlantic streams, are identical with them, the difference in conformation

being only occasioned by the peculiarity of the mineral districts in which they are found.

It appears that all the streams that flow to the south from Tennessee pass over tertiary deposits, as well as those which run eastwards into the Arkansas river. These deposits contain a great quantity of marine shells, such as ostrea, turritella, calyptrea, cerithium, &c., and thus afford conclusive proof that the ocean at one of the most recent geological periods has flowed up to the base of the highlands from Canada to Red River in Arkansas; tertiary deposits existing on the whole line of the St. Lawrence,—at Martha's Vineyard, and in innumerable localities from thence southward to Red River.*

> "Old Ocean's abdicated empire; here
> I see in wondrous strata deep and vast,
> Once subjects of the main,
> The branching coral and the pearly shell,
> Left by the refluent waters."

It may be proper also to notice, that almost all the rivers contain infusorial deposits.

There are said to be two hundred volcanoes in the world, but it is remarkable that, except they exist in the Rocky Mountains, there are none in the United States, although the vast quantities of pumice, and other volcanic productions, that float down the Missouri, and are deposited in sand-bars and islands along its course, are strongly indicative of the existence of volcanoes in the north west of the continent, the direction from which they come. It is indeed asserted, on the authority of Captain Fremont,† that in the territory of the upper Missouri, near the eastern declivity of the Rocky Mountains, a scorified pseudo-volcanic product (a kind of porcelain jasper) is found. Mount Elias and Mount Fairweather, in Russian America, the highest points of the Rocky Mountains, which are of a conical form,

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* "It seems certain that the whole of Canada has been violently convulsed by some effort of nature since the floods of the deluge passed away. The mountains are abrupt and irregular in outline, and in some places cleft with immense caverns. The rivers also show singular contortions. North of Quebec and in St Paul's Bay are many cases of volcanic eruptions; and vast masses of alluvial rocks bearing marks of vitrification frequently appear on the surface of the earth. There are, besides, strong evidence that the American continent has lain for unknown ages beneath the great deep, or that it is of later formation than Europe or Asia."—*Sir Chas. Lyell's America.*

† Captain Fremont's Report of his Expedition, made to the Congress of the United States.

are believed to be still active volcanoes. In the lower ranges of these vast elevations, Captain Fremont collected volcanic products, as scoriaceous basalt, trachyte, and true obsidian; and he discovered near Fort Hall an extinct crater, but no traces of still active volcanoes emitting lava and ashes.

Along the southern border of the Alleghanies, also, there are traces of active igneous movement, the strata being perforated by intrusive volcanic rocks; but none have been known since the discovery by Americus and Cabot, and no traditionary records of their existence have been left us by the Indians.

At the same time, the geological formation of these mountains gives undoubted proof of the most overwhelming revolution effected by subterraneous volcanic action, though at a very early period in the history of the now habitable globe.

Some shocks of earthquake, so common and frequent along the southern and western border of the Gulf of Mexico, in central South America, and in Europe, have occurred in the States, but none have been of a destructive character; indeed they have been considered only sympathetic with those of the Southern Continent.

In concluding this chapter, the author is persuaded that he speaks the sentiments of his readers when he says that we cannot but stand amazed at the magnitude and magnificence of the field which this world we inhabit presents to the investigations of human intellect, and at the sources of human happiness which such researches open up. At the same time, let us reflect, as creatures gifted with reason and intelligence, on the multiplied attestations which all creation affords of an infinitely benignant Almighty Cause.

Every place is pregnant with materials for human delight; both animate and inanimate existence, proclaim omniscience; —all creatures point to a Governor, somewhere presiding, whose order is their rule and power,—their support and life,—and they all call on man, the viceregent of earth, to take up their song of thanksgiving, and lead the universal choir:—

"Praise ye the Lord. Praise ye the Lord from the heavens: praise him in the heights.

"Praise ye him, all his angels: praise ye him, all his hosts.

"Praise ye him, sun and moon: praise him, all ye stars of light.

"Praise him, ye heavens of heavens, and ye waters that be above the heavens.

"Let them praise the name of the Lord: for he commanded, d they were created.
"He hath also established them for ever and ever: he hath ade a decree which shall not pass.
"Praise the Lord from the earth, ye dragons, and all deeps:
"Fire, and hail; snow, and vapours; stormy wind fulfilling word:
"Mountains, and all hills; fruitful trees, and all cedars:
"Beasts, and all cattle; creeping things, and flying fowl:
"Kings of the earth, and all people; princes, and all judges the earth:
"Both young men, and maidens; old men, and children:
"Let them praise the name of the Lord: for his name alone excellent; his glory is above the earth and heaven."*

* Psalm cxlviii.

CHAPTER XVI.

MORAL CHARACTER OF AMERICAN PROGRESS.—Benevolent and philanthropic societies. Origin and progress of the temperance movement. Efforts to counteract the consumption of tobacco. Estimate of the quantity consumed. Of its cost and poisonous qualities. Sabbath observance society. Society for abolition of war and promotion of universal peace and brotherhood. Sanitary arrangements. Prison discipline society. Reformatory schools, &c. Prisons. Orphan asylums. Institutions for the blind. Emigrants' Asylum; or, Stranger's home. Sailors' home. Modern reformatory institutions for drunkards, &c. The bible and tract societies. Home and foreign missions. Principles and plans of these institutions. Extraordinary efficiency of their operation.

The progress of this great country has not been exclusively of a material character; nor can its aggregate prosperity be accurately estimated from revenue and population returns, statistics of shipping, of agriculture, of manufactures, or of natural resources.

Benevolent and philanthropic societies have increased,—literature and education, and the means of religious teaching have advanced step by step with the progress made in commerce and in national wealth. Most of those institutions, indeed, by which the civilization of the Old Country is distinguished, exist also in the New, and some of them are even in a more prosperous and healthy condition. It must, however, be conceded, that less attention is paid in the States than in England to science and philosophy, as also to the more costly and delicate labours of art.

Among the benevolent institutions in the United States, the Temperance Society occupies a distinguished place.

The temperance movement, indeed, originated with our transatlantic brethren. They were the first to concentrate public opinion upon the subject, by organizing a society to counteract the influence of intemperance, having, as early as the year 1813, convened a meeting and formed a board, called "The Association of Massachusetts Proper," specifying as its object "the checking of the progress of intemperance."

The results of their first investigations, as ordered by this board, were appalling. The extent, tendencies, and fatal conse-

quences of the evil, were found to exceed the most fearful apprehensions of those whose solicitude on the subject had been supposed extravagant. Four hundred thousand of the community were ascertained to be confirmed drunkards, four-fifths of the crimes existing were attributed to it, two thirds of the pauperism, and one-third of the mental derangement.

It was also estimated, about the same time, that the annual cost of intemperance in France was 260,000,000 dollars, in Great Britain 195,000,000 dollars, in Sweden 65,000,000 dollars, and in the United States 40,000,000 dollars,—and all this in addition to the cost of prisons, police, asylums, and workhouses, which are rendered necessary by intoxicating drinks.

The following is a calculation made in relation to America alone, about the same time, or soon after the society was formed, by a gentleman deeply interested in the cause of temperance:—"It appears that, independently of items which cannot be estimated, our country pays or loses at the rate of one hundred and twenty millions of dollars per annum by intemperance.* This sum is five times as large as the revenue of the United States' Government;—it would pay off our national debt in six months;—it would build twelve such canals as the Grand Erie and Hudson Canal every year;—it would support a navy four times as large as that of Great Britain;—it is sixty times as much as the aggregate income of all the principal religious and charitable societies in Europe and America;—it would supply every family on the earth with a bible in eight months;—it would support a missionary or teacher among every two thousand souls on our globe! How prosperous might this country be,—what blessings might it confer upon the world,—if it were only relieved from the curse of intemperance!"

By the circulation of temperance tracts,—by the addresses of travelling agents supported by the society for the purpose,—by the formation and zealous action of auxiliary associations,—and by the acquisition of individual assistance for the performance of a variety of duties tending to promote the great object, public attention was attracted towards the society, and the example was quickly followed by Great Britain and Ireland.

The zeal manifested in this cause was crowned with an extent

* This appalling fact was substantiated by Judge Crench, of Washington, and by Senator Butler, of Albany, in 1833, who affirmed that intemperance then cost the United States more than one hundred millions of dollars per annum.

and efficiency of success that excited astonishment and admiration. A fund of twenty thousand dollars was procured in one district towards the support of some gentlemen of distinguished ability and piety, who voluntered their services to disseminate throughout the country such principles and information as would best promote the benevolent design in view.

In a very short time after their establishment, these societies so much increased in number and efficiency, in some parts of the Union, that in one district alone fifteen hundred vendors of ardent spirits gave up the trade; and they now number half-a-million of members.

A few years since it was said by the editor of an American paper, "Five thousand drunkards have been reformed;—a very large number in the army and navy, as well as the labouring man, refuse longer to use ardent spirits. A million of free men and christian men have decreed the traffic in ardent spirits a moral wrong; two thousand distilleries have been discontinued, and all Christendom is turning from it as from a pestilence."

It is gratifying further to observe in connection with the objects of this society, that efforts are now being made for the establishment of curative hospitals for drunkards. On this subject the eminent Dr. Benjamin Rush observes, "To the account of physical remedies I shall add the establishment of a hospital in every city and town of the United States for the exclusive reception of hard drinkers; they are as much the objects of public humanity as mad people."*

The Americans exceed the British in the number of their temperance ships. In short, it may be said that in no instance has private philanthropy and patriotism ever been more displayed than in that of the temperance movement in the United States.

Impressed also with the astounding fact that the total produce of tobacco grown on the face of the globe has been calculated† to amount annually to the enormous quantity of two millions of tons, which is as much as all the wheat consumed in England; that the greatest producers of this are Spain and America, and that the labour for its cultivation and manufac-

* It is estimated that during the year 1834, the sum expended in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in cigars and tobacco, exceeded £8,000,000 sterling. This enormous sum exceeds the gross amount levied for the poor rates of the entire nation.

† By Mr. Crawford.

ture is by slaves, as also that the whole duty on the above is upwards of £4,500,000 per annum, equal to a poll-tax of 8s. per head for the whole population of the States; added to considerations more especially affecting the moral and social state of the country, the philanthropic portion of the community have also made a determined effort to counteract the consumption of tobacco by moral means, thus to wipe away the reproach that has been so long fixed on the national character by its abuse. The cost of tobacco used in the United States alone is estimated to be greater than the expense of supporting all the ministers of the gospel of every denomination in the Union.

An association exists here also for promoting the observance of the christian Sabbath. A meeting was held some years since (1828) in the city of New York, composed of a number of delegates from different parts of the country, and some hundreds of other influential individuals for the purpose of devising the best means of redeeming the Lord's day from dishonour and growing abuse. One of the leading rules adopted by the delegates was the following:—

"We, whose names are undersigned, do hereby acknowledge our obligation to keep the Sabbath according to the Scriptures; and we pledge ourselves to each other and to the christian public, to refrain from all secular employments on that day; from travelling in steam-boats, stages, canal-boats, or otherwise, except in cases of necessity and mercy; and to aim at discharging the duties of that sacred day: and also that we will, as circumstances admit, encourage and give a preference to those lines of conveyance whose owners do not employ them on the Sabbath."

Our brethren of the United States were the first to volunteer the pledge of universal brotherhood, uniting in efforts for the abolition of all war, and to oppose the spirit and all the manifestations of war throughout the world. They also conceived the idea of the abolition of all restrictions upon international correspondence and friendly intercourse by the establishment of an ocean penny postage.

Aware that all the appliances of physical as well as social science are necessary to preserve the natural vigour of the population, especially in cities, and desiring thus to develop the inexhaustible resources of their race, they have called into existence the most efficient and extensive sanitary arrangements. Thus the crowding of the people in houses in close streets,

from deficient and defective house accommodation, is a far less extensive and destructive evil in America—the city of New York, perhaps, excepted—than in England and other European kingdoms. In their most crowded cities there are few putrescent courts or pestilential alleys,

> "Where flags the noontide air,
> And as we pass
> We fear to breathe the putrifying mass."

To the health-measures generally adopted, or to the rendering them unnecessary by previous foresight and arrangement,—the foundation of all efforts to benefit the working man, as well as the most benevolent of all charitable ideas,—is attributable, to a very considerable degree, the order, intelligence, and social happiness so visible among them, and which no merely political enactments can bestow. Arrangements for health and cleanliness, however, are not so extensive and general in America as in England, but the subject has begun to enlist the sympathies of the benevolent classes in a degree corresponding with its importance. Hence, in New York, public baths for the people have been recently established at a cost of 30,000 dollars, with a drying apparatus attached of great convenience and utility.

While the Benevolent Societies in America are nearly if not equally as numerous as in Britain, some of them are conducted with even greater vigour and efficiency. Among these may be particularly noticed their Prison Discipline Society; a subject than which, as connected with the domestic policy of a nation, none is of more important and permanent interest. This society, which is not only in effective operation, but being in part supported by voluntary contribution, employs numerous effective advocates and is vigilantly inspected by voluntary agents, has been instrumental in alleviating a sum of human misery that may be justly regarded as immense. It aims to turn the sinner from the error of his ways, to reform his vicious habits, to enlighten his dark mind, and to prepare the criminal for the awful doom that awaits him. The institutions themselves,—for they are numerous,—and the manner in which they are conducted, are the universal theme of commendation. The state prisons of Boston and Philadelphia are worthy of the world's imitation.

The active benevolence which not only takes so deep an interest in the objects of punishment, but in all who really need the exercise of human charity, can hardly be surpassed in any

part of the world. The Americans take the lead in these departments of active philanthropy, and are thereby earning a distinction for their country more honourable than could result from the highest eminence in arts, or the most glorious achievements in arms. But the voice of the philanthropist, although it has accomplished much in relation to the criminal, has not yet secured, except in a few of the States, the abolition of the punishment of death for the capital crime of murder as well as for some other felonies; yet executions do not, as in England and other countries, take place before the world, but within the prison walls, in the presence of a few respectable citizens, and of the judge and jury who fixed the crime and adjudged the penalty.

Their Orphan Asylums and Institutions for the Blind are numerous, well supported, and admirably conducted. The Gerard Orphan Asylum, at Philadelphia, would be an honour as well as an ornament to any country.

In the list of benevolent societies in America, the Emigrant's Asylum or Strangers' Home, must not be omitted, as it is one of the most interesting and really philanthropic that could have been devised,—its object being the reception and assistance of emigrants who arrive in the country in sickness or destitution. This is an institution indeed which awakens the heartfelt gratitude of thousands in every part of the land. The character and circumstances of multitudes daily proclaim its praise. And scarcely inferior to this, in its highly beneficial influence on a vast body of useful and interesting men, is the Sailors' Home. America does much more than England for the welfare of foreign sailors, and attends much more to the moral improvement of her own maritime population. She expends 40,000 dollars annually, to support chaplains for sailors, not only in her own country, but at foreign sea-ports,—as at Canton, Havre, Honalulu, Marseilles, Smyrna, Mobile Bay, Havannah, and New Orleans. It is also worthy of observation, that in none of the charitable institutions in America, are the recipients of such charities degraded by the badges of grotesque and antiquated uniforms. "The Americans," says Mr. Dickens, in his facetious language, expressive of his indignation at conventional customs which are degrading to the species,—"the Americans do not consider charity and leather breeches inseparable companions." Nor, it may be added, are their charitable institutions less free from absurd restrictions and sectarian prejudice.

Banks for savings are common; and that at the Lowell Institution, according to a recent report, contained upwards of 1,000,000 dollars, chiefly the savings of persons employed in the mills.

Bible Societies, Religious Tract, and Missionary Societies,—both home and foreign,—are on a scale of magnitude and importance scarcely inferior to those of the mother country. The receipts of the American Tract Society are three-fold the amount of those of the Tract Society of England, and its benefits more than proportioned to its means,—an advantage resulting from its admirable system of colportage, and from the absence of taxes on knowledge. The American Tract Society alone employs six hundred and fifty-nine missionaries, and issues a monthly serial for children, which has a circulation of 500,000; the cost to each subscriber being no more than fourpence a year.*

The United States have numerous foreign missions. These establishments are found on the shores of Burmah, Batavia and Sincapore, Siam, Assam, China, and the Coromandel coast of India; among the islands of the Pacific Ocean; Cape Palma, and Monrovia in western Africa; France, Germany, and Greece; in Athens and Servia, and in the Island of Crete; they extend along many other shores in the provinces of Asia Minor, and from the ridge which supports this high central region towards the Mediterranean, the Ægean, and the Black seas; they exist in Pisidia, Phrygia, Galatia, and Cappadocia, and upon the plains of Cilicia and Pamphylia, Pontus and Bythinia, thus embracing the district celebrated for the seven apocalyptic churches, where their agents are labouring, attempting to rekindle the lamp of pure religion long extinguished, but which once burnt so brightly there,—whilst others are carrying back the torch of Divine truth to that blessed land which first saw the Sun of Righteousness arise; aiming thus finally to supplant the crescent by the Cross.

Nor while they cultivate the vineyard of others do they neglect their own. Their Domestic, or Home Mission, is spread widely among the Indian tribes. And though the devotion and zeal of the domestic missionaries may receive little applause from men, yet they are not unblest,—not without their

* Speech of C. H. Stuart, Esq., at the Paris Conference of Evangelical Alliance.

present reward; while their work of faith and labour of love are correctly estimated on high, and will be fully recompensed at the resurrection of the just.

In 1850, there were five hundred and seventy missionaries among the Indian tribes; more than half of whom were women. Altogether this society has a revenue of 79,000 dollars yearly. To the list of its agents thus named must be added two thousand preachers and helpers among the natives themselves. One thousand churches, of various christian denominations, have been erected; and the number of professing christians among the Indian tribes is 40,537. There is, besides, a great number of schools.*

Nor is this the total result of all the Society's labours. As collateral benefits of the instruction given by these devoted, self-denying men, thousands of the different tribes have been weaned from savage habits and allured to the superior advantages of civil life;—they have exchanged the tomahawk and the scalping-knife for the plough and the hoe; and instead of ranging the forests in seeming affinity with the beasts of the desert, peacefully and rationally enjoy the produce of their own labour in the fruitful field.

The various Bible Societies established since 1804 in different parts of the world, have issued no less than 40,000,000 copies of the Holy Scriptures, and in this noble work the United States have borne their part. Last year, Great Britain raised 3,500,000 dollars for the spread of the Gospel; the continent of Europe, 750,000 dollars; and the United States, 1,750,000 dollars.

There is scarcely a single object of christian and benevolent enterprize in England, or even one that tends simply to the promotion and happiness of our race, that does not equally secure the sympathies and efforts of our brethren of the New Hemisphere.

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* Report of the American Board of Missions for 1850.

CHAPTER XVII.

EDUCATION, LITERATURE, LITERARY INSTITUTIONS, AND LITERARY MEN.—Day schools. Sunday schools. State of education in general. Normal seminaries for training female teachers. High estimate of women as teachers of youth. Their especial influence in the improvement of society. Schools of design and practical science. Institutions for the promotion of geological and physical science at Washington, Philadelphia, &c. Great improvements in nautical science by Lieut. Maury. Advancement in everything in relation to the mind and social life. Numerous seminaries of learning. Where situated. Quality of knowledge imparted. General character of the principal institutions. Most eminent literary men, divines, historians, novelists, and critics. Philosophers and astronomers. Naturalists, mathematicians, sculptors, painters, poets, literary women. Theological schools. Colleges and universities. Libraries. Museums. Female medical colleges. Newspapers and periodical publications in general. Character of the American press.

Although England is justly renowned for her cultivation of the arts and sciences, and notwithstanding the poor rates of that country exceed £5,000,000 sterling per annum, yet there are few Protestant countries probably where the education of the poor is so much neglected. It is different in America. Here just and rational views on the subject are more generally entertained.

Education has ever been a subject of deep interest and importance in America; and there is no country in the world where it has to so great a degree reached the masses. The great founders of the national institutions seem to have been aware that republics especially have no stability or safety unless founded on virtue and intelligence. Hence almost every village has its school-house as well as its place of worship.

There are in the United States about 80,000 common schools, which are supported at an annual expense of nearly 6,000,000 dollars; more than half of which is expended by the States of New York and Massachusetts. The details are as follows:—Of public schools, there are 80,091; of teachers, 92,000; of pupils, 3,354,173. Their total income is—from endowment, 182,594 dollars; taxation, 4,686,414 dollars; public funds, 2,574,669 dollars; other sources, 2,147,853 dollars: aggregate,

9,591,530 dollars. Of academies and other schools there are 6,032, with 12,207 teachers, and 261,302 pupils. Their annual income is—from endowments, 288,855 dollars; taxation, 14,202 dollars; public funds, 114,788 dollars; other sources, 4,235,987: total, 4,653,842 dollars.

Infant schools in particular, which are calculated more than all others, or than any other means, to form and improve the morals and manners of the masses, being established throughout the entire of the Northern, Eastern, and Middle States, are constantly exerting their influence on the million. Reformatory industrial schools are also established for young criminals.*

Sunday schools are universal, and are ably and vigorously superintended. Sunday School Unions are formed to promote the extension and efficiency of these institutions, as well as to render them permanent; while day schools are more or less general throughout the Union.

The public sentiment with respect to schools cannot perhaps be better expressed than it has been by Mr. Horace Mann, the great public advocate and promoter of these institutions. "We inherit," says this great philanthropist, "capacity of mind, and good and bad qualities from our parents. One generation inherits from another. The sins and virtues of the parent, according to the Scriptures, are visited, punished, or rewarded in the person of his children's children. By diffusing the influence of a good education through the whole people, will the whole people be elevated; and if the next generation be similarly treated, having inherited a higher intelligence, human nature will be elevated still more, and so on infinitely."

"Public education," says another influential individual, "has everywhere shown itself in the United States the great principle of the popular elevation and development. The American mind has caught the idea, and will never lose sight of it, that the whole of the State's property, public and private, is holden subject to the sacred trust of providing the means of education for every child in the States."

This determined habit of education principally originated with the Pilgrim Fathers, who had so high a sense of the advantages of elementary instruction and of scholastic learning

* That at Westborough, Massachusetts, is supposed to be the original of these institutions.

in general, that one of their first public acts was to resolve that every child of their settlement should have a good educational training. This was as early as the year 1642. Since that period the system of elementary schools has been improved in various ways, and formally established throughout the North-eastern States, whence it has extended to other parts of the Union.

In New England particularly, the greatest attention has invariably been paid to this important subject. In Connecticut, the towns are divided into school districts. The result of this beneficial arrangement is obvious and striking. The Americans of the Eastern and Middle States are a well-informed and moral people. Even in the humblest walks of life a citizen in Massachusetts will hardly be found incapable of reading and writing, or ignorant of grammar or arithmetic; while there are thousands who, through the instrumentality of higher schools, have acquired a respectable classical education.*

Parents, excepting those who are so steeped in ignorance and profligacy as to be altogether regardless of their children's welfare, see the growing importance of education in regard to secular considerations and prospects, and thus themselves unite in promoting it.

However neglected some districts may be, and however incompetent many of those engaged in the work of instruction may be considered, still the number of schools of different descriptions, scattered over the country, is already large, and is rapidly increasing; while under the influence of a variety of motives, the advantages, such as they are, which these schools present, are turned to general as well as to individual account.

Recent movements have directed attention so universally to education, that even the lowest classes which have hitherto been indifferent to the subject are being aroused to efforts for its attainment; and it seems probable that an amount and variety of exertion will be called forth which will form a sufficient guarantee that the great mass of the rising generation will at least be taught to read and write.

The following summary shows the results of recent calcula-

* The greater part of the public schools are supported by the State and City Governments.

tions on the subject by Dr. Bacon, of New Haven, in Connecticut:—

	Persons under 20 years of age receiving education.	Over 20 who cannot read and write.
New England States	4 out of 5	1 in 100
New York	1 „ 2⅘	1 „ 22
New Jersey	1 „ 3⅘	1 „ 19
Pennsylvania	1 „ 4	1 „ 9
Delaware, Maryland, and district of Columbia	1 „ 7½	1 „ 11
Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida	1 „ 10½	1 „ 6
Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Missouri	1 „ 11½	1 „ 5
Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Mitchigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa	1 „ 4½	1 „ 13
The entire United States free population	1 „ 3⅘	1 „ 12
Free States	1 „ 3	1 „ 22
Slave States free population	1 „ 10½	1 „ 6*

In 1850, it was estimated that more than four millions of American youth were receiving instruction in the various educational institutions, which would be at the rate of one in every five free persons. The teachers numbered 115,000, and the colleges and superior schools nearly 100,000.

For that class of the population whose disposition leads them to seek other fields of knowledge, and whose circumstances permit them to indulge that disposition, ample means are already provided. In Massachusetts, and generally in the States, the plan is pursued of imparting a free education according to existing ability, and it is carried through the several grades of primary, intermediate, and grammar schools.

Great attention is now being paid to the education of females in the United States. But their education is more public than in England. Few private governesses are employed. Boarding and day schools are abundant. Girls and boys are commonly educated together† by school-mistresses in the common schools to a certain age, and then transferred to schools of a higher order, which are generally the creation of individual effort.

But of all the educational institutions in America, the Normal seminaries for the education of women for teachers are the

* This analysis most strikingly shows the blighting influence of slavery upon all the best interests of the country, and all the elements of social and moral progress.

† This practice is not so common as formerly.

most important and interesting. These are multiplying, and, in general, are much superior to those of Europe. Woman's increasing value as a teacher, and the employment of her as such in public schools, even in those for boys to a certain age, is a notable fact which speaks much for America's future, as well as for her humanity.

This practice mostly prevails in New England, and it seems as if the daughters of those States have a peculiar faculty and love for this employment.* Young girls of fortune devote themselves to it. The daughters of small farmers go to work in the manufactories a sufficient time to earn the necessary sum to put themselves to school, in order to become teachers in due course; while crowds of school teachers go to the western and southern States, where schools are being established and placed under their direction.

"The young daughters of New England are universally commended for their character and ability. Even Waldo Emerson, who does not often easily praise," says Miss Bremer, "spoke in commendation of them. They learn in the schools, the classics, mathematics, physics, algebra, with great ease, and pass their examinations like young men. Not long since, a young lady in Nantucket, not far from Boston, distinguished herself in astronomy, by discovering a new planet, and received, in consequence, a medal from the king of Prussia."†

And the estimate of women as teachers of the young is increasing day by day. "If I must choose between giving an education to the men or women of a country, I would leave the men and begin with the women," said one of the American statesmen to Miss Bremer. "And I believe I do not say too much," adds this able and benevolent authoress, "when I maintain that this mode of thinking is participated by the greater number of men in the United States, so strong is the conviction of woman's influence on the rising generation." "Women govern us," says Sheridan; "let us try to render them perfect. The more *they* are enlightened, so much the more shall *we* be. On the cultivation of the minds of women depends the wisdom of the men.

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* The daughter of the late President Filmore is teacher of an academy for ladies at Buffalo. This young lady is said to have felt herself in a more honourable position when usefully employed in the successful attainment of her own independence, than surrounded by the statesmen of the Republic in the saloons of the palace of the President at Washington.

† Homes of the New World.

Woman is the guardian of the morals of society. Her vocation is to teach,—to entreat,—to preach,—to strew the path to eternity with flowers; she is the medium through which the whole race of mankind will eventually be elevated to the purest condition of humanity; she is destined to become the social regenerator of the world."

As the language of a woman, there is great force, as well as beauty, in the following lines addressed to her native land, by Mrs. Sigourney:—

"There is strength
In thy young children, and in those who lead
Their souls to righteousness. The mother's prayer
With her sweet lisper ere it sinks to rest,—
The faithful teacher 'mid a plastic group,—
The classic halls, the hamlet's slender spire,
From whence, as from a solemn Gothic pile
That crowns the city's pomp, ascendeth sweet
Jehovah's praise: these are thy strength, my land;
These are thy hope."

Science also is here making rapid progress. Lectures are being constantly delivered on all branches of natural philosophy, as well as on the subjects of peace, liberty, genuineness of character, temperance, purity, and the ennobling of every phase and condition of life and imparting cultivation to all men. They are well attended by persons of both sexes, and their happy influence is obvious. The taste for positive knowledge as contrasted with speculative, for experimental instead of dogmatical philosophy, is descending deeply and spreading widely among the people. And out of this grows the progress of the social mind of America,—her steamboat navigation, and all her other general improvements and appliances in relation to agriculture and commerce,—inventions by which the powers of matter are made the servants of man. And it is to be noted that the Americans seem to be particularly attracted by any subject that relates to the increase of motive powers,—anything that relates to methods for expediting movement and accelerating communication. The impulse and the necessity to obtain possession of all the natural resources of the country are in full activity, and, consequently, much is done by Government, as well as by individuals and companies, to promote the extension of practical science. And there are few persons in the United States to whom projects of improvement, based on theoretic principles, are idle dreams, useless speculations, incapable of any beneficial action on the stubborn realities of practical life.

Recently, in imitation of England, schools of design have been established; and although, as with their Saxon progenitors, the natural genius for drawing and painting in the circle of the arts comprised under the name of Design for Manufactures, may not raise them to an equality with some other nations, yet they are progressing rapidly in portraiture and landscape drawing.

Geology and the physical sciences flourish; the different States send scientific men to examine new districts within their own borders; and institutions are established for the advancement of useful knowledge, especially in natural history and mechanics.

One such is the Franklin Institution at Philadelphia, and another the Smithsonian at Washington. For the latter, an ornamental Gothic building has lately been erected on the banks of the Potomac. This institution, endowed by the wealthy gentleman whose name it bears, is intended to form a national centre, where all the scientific labourers of the United States may find a point of union. This establishment is a peculiarly important one, as it attempts the culture of general knowledge on a scale so liberal as cannot but prove valuable to the community.

Progress is being made in everything in America, but in nothing more than in relation to the mind and things material in social life. Everywhere knowledge is demanded; and the supply is poured out on all sides,—running through all channels,—rolling onwards like a noble and beautiful stream,—augmenting its volume and its force by a thousand tributaries,—bearing on its placid bosom the rich products of many minds,—and scattering with profusion innumerable blessings in its course.

The influence of education has improved, is improving, and will yet further improve, moderate, soften, and meliorate the character of even American backwoodsmen, and the population of the remotest provinces; daily diminishing the blunt, coarse manners that formerly obtained, or which, to some extent, and in some localities, may yet prevail—the result, probably, of isolation, and a vain and extravagant idea of the political institutions of the country;—the latter having its origin in the successful struggle for independence of the early settlers, and the subsequent national prosperity. Their complacency is now generally moderated by better knowledge; and they have learned to know

the value of those accomplishments and that civilization which they once regarded it as patriotic to despise;—their estimate of themselves is consequently now more in accordance with their real merit.

Our American brethren are also beginning to look upon the great world that lies toward the rising sun with other eyes. They have associated in some degree with the most learned and reflecting of modern nations, so that their literature is enriched with all other literatures, and bids fair to become the treasured knowledge of a Mithridatic nation conversant with all languages, from the Rocky Mountains to Japan.

In no part of the world are seminaries of learning more numerous, or, perhaps, more generally efficient. It is, indeed, alleged, that America is not distinguished for mental vigour, and has produced few men of genius in the walks of literature, as compared especially with France, Germany, or England. This, however, if true, is by no means a degrading imputation; nor is the defect, if real, one that should excite surprise. It must be remembered that America is yet in her early youth; that her first business has been to cultivate the desert that she might provide for her physical wants; to lay the foundation for her future agricultural and commercial greatness; and that her national energy has been hitherto directed towards these pursuits, rather than to polite literature. The seed-time and the harvest could not be expected together. At the present time almost every American being still more or less a working man,—more or less dependent for subsistence upon his own exertions,—a practical education is still the chief desideratum, and in almost universal demand. Knowledge is thus almost universally estimated by the amount of available acquirement which it enables a student to bring to the common business of life. Learning is not, except in a comparatively few instances, followed for its own sake or for its remoter advantages, but for the purpose of accomplishing a direct and immediate practical result. Hence the arts and sciences which have flourished most in America, as during earlier centuries in England, have been those almost exclusively which are recommended by their utility,—those which teach the application of knowledge to practical purposes,—which aid in the invention of useful machinery,—which give vigour to domestic improvement,—and which promote the grandeur of commercial enterprise. Where the necessity of labour is imposed on a whole population, and where few

are independent in fortune, to expect that any great demand should exist for learning not immediately connected with the great business of life, is unreasonable. Admitting, however, that there are fewer finished scholars in America than in England, it must, on the other hand, be conceded that general knowledge and intelligence are more diffused.

It is by no means ingenuous or fair to judge of one nation by the conventional standards of another; and those travellers who are not chargeable with intolerance of the defects and peculiarities of their European neighbours, should in justice make more allowance than has hitherto been usual for those of a people as yet in an incipient state of national existence.

There have not been wanting men who have even reproached the late republic of Haiti for not exhibiting an almost perfect civilization, or producing men to rival the *savans* of England and France!

Whatever may be thought by some critics of the claims of American genius to originality and inventiveness in poetry and philosophy, it cannot be denied that they are advancing rapidly to a state of intelligence in which their genius may be developed to the same perfection as is exhibited by the more privileged members of older and more fully civilized communities.

"The literature of America," says Professor Nichol in his late lecture on "The Social Peculiarities of America," before the Young Men's Institution of Edinburgh,—"the literature of America is now giving signs of an originality which it has never yet possessed. Its poetry is especially worthy of notice as indicating the altered condition of the New as compared with the Old World. Unlike Shakspeare and others, they address themselves to the practical purposes of life. They address labour in much the same spirit as Burns addressed it, while yet in the simplicity and purity of his soul 'he walked in glory following his plough upon the mountain side,' before he had been corrupted and demoralised by the fashionable society of Edinburgh."

"Great as have been the disadvantages of our transatlantic brethren," says a high authority,* speaking of the present time, "they have formed for themselves a literature of which they have no reason to be ashamed, and which bids fair to rival that of the most polished states of the Old World."

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* Charles Dickens, Esq.

The North American States have, to their honour, shown a spirit of rivalry in establishing not merely colleges and universities, but subordinate scientific associations, for the promotion of literature and the furtherance of useful studies; and what is still more to the honour of the American people, these institutions are popular, and are supported by voluntary contributions, thus purifying and maturing the influence which belongs to them in the great body politic.

And the United States is not without her heraldry of science and literary fame. In the long list of American divines of the past and passing age, whose works will hand down the theology and piety of America with honour to posterity, are—Presidents Edwards, Dwight, and Moses Stuart; Drs. Channing, Webster (the lexicographer), Payson, Wayland, and Williams: Bancroft and Prescott, are found among her historians: and Washington Irving, Cooper, Paulding, Dana, Hawthorne, and Emerson, are eminent in works of criticism and romance. America has produced her Franklin and Silliman in philosophy and astronomy; has half naturalized her Audubon and Agassiz in natural history; she boasts her Rittenhouse and Fuller (a slave of Maryland) in mathematics; her Trumbull and Hiram Powers in statuary and painting. In poetry, Bryant, Longfellow, Percival, Whittier, Lowell, and Edgar Poe, shine like the brightest constellations of their southern firmament. Some of her sons are eminent for attainments in every kind of science; while it is remarkable that the proportion of literary women in the United States is greater than that in England or on the European continent.

Among the most distinguished of these are, Mrs. Sigourney, Sedgwick, Carey, Child, M'Intosh, Hall, Kirkland, Osgood, and though last not least in this bright roll, the late Sarah Margaret Fuller, or Marchioness of Ossoli, and Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.* America can even boast of females in the higher departments of philosophy, science, and the arts. Among them are several who have graduated at universities as proficients both in classical and medical knowledge.† A young female

* The well-known author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," one of the most popular books ever issued from the press. Its sale in America alone amounted to 300,000 copies.

† It is stated by "The American Collegiate Mirror," that the honorary degree of Mistress of Arts has been conferred upon two of these ladies,—Mrs. Hall and Mrs. Sigourney.

was lately pursuing a course of studies in sculpture in Florence, and has already distinguished herself by executing several admirable busts. She has more recently modelled an ideal figure, which gives promise of a perfection in the arts which no female has ever before attained.

It is an evidence that the learning of the country is rapidly advancing to a higher grade, that colleges are so numerous, and in so flourishing a condition. In 1850 there were one hundred and twenty-three of these institutions. Some of them were established between one and two centuries since. These colleges contain from ten to eleven thousand students, who are receiving an education of the highest kind under four hundred and thirty-five instructors. The total number of *alumni* who have passed through these one hundred and twenty-three colleges is about eighty-two thousand; and eight thousand five hundred and seventy-five of those who have been educated there were or are ministers of religion. The libraries of these colleges contain nearly 800,000 volumes. The largest individual library is at Harvard or Cambridge University, which contains upwards of 80,000 volumes. That of Yale, in New Haven, Connecticut, contains 47,000 volumes, with a splendid mineralogical cabinet, consisting of more than 10,000 specimens, and a magnificent collection of paintings by Trumbull and other distinguished artists.

In the year 1850 there were forty-two theological schools in the United States, with one thousand three hundred and fifteen students, and with libraries amounting to 17,500 volumes. The number of law schools was twelve, with four hundred and fourteen students. The medical schools were thirty-five in number, with four thousand five hundred and fifty-five students, and most of them give all the more essential parts of a complete literary, scientific, and medical education. But other authorities state that there were in 1850 upwards of seventy theological schools; forty-four medical and surgical schools; nineteen schools of law, and ten of practical science; total, one hundred and forty; whilst upwards of two thousand young men are under a course of instruction in their different colleges for the work of the ministry. The latest estimate, very recently published, on the authority of public documents, is, that there are in the United States one hundred and twenty-two colleges, with more than a thousand professors, and having more than twelve thousand students. They have exten-

sive laboratories and astronomical instruments, and libraries containing more than 1,000,000 volumes. There are about forty medical schools, with about two hundred and fifty professors and five thousand students. There are forty-four theological schools, with one hundred and twenty-seven professors, and between thirteen and fourteen hundred students. There are sixteen law schools, and about six hundred students. In the United States and *territories*, there were in 1850, two hundred and thirty-five colleges, with one thousand six hundred and fifty-one teachers, and twenty-seven thousand one hundred and fifty-nine pupils. Their total annual income is,—from endowment, 452,314 dollars; from taxation, 15,485 dollars; from public funds, 184,549 dollars; from other sources, 1,264,280 dollars; total, 1,916,628 dollars.

There are also female medical colleges, their object being to promote the education of females as professional attendants upon their own sex and upon children, thus to open to females a wider sphere of employment than that to which they are now restricted. The principal of these are established in New York, Boston, and Ohio. Many women of energy and practical sense have been there educated for this vocation, and the institutions are justly regarded by philanthropic men as a movement worthy of the age. With schools, academies, or lyceums, gymnasiums, and colleges, the country may almost be said to be filled; while they are generally provided with talented and well qualified teachers and professors.

The principal of these seats of learning in the United States, are,—Harvard University, at Cambridge, near Boston; Brown University, Rhode Island; Yale, in Connecticut; Andover, in Massachusetts; Columbia College, New York; William and Mary College, in Virginia; Princeton in New Jersey, situate midway between New York and Philadelphia; Columbia College, Washington; and Kenyon Episcopal College in Ohio.

These colleges and seats of learning viewed in the mass, as extending from the polished cities to the log settlements of the backwoodsmen, vary much in regard to respectability, numbers of students, and means of support. Most of them, however, are generously supported and efficiently conducted; while it may not be unimportant to remark, on the authority of the Rev. Mr. Caswell, an Episcopalian minister, an Englishman, and author of an interesting work on America and the American

Church, that the institutions which have been endowed, and which are sustained by the State, seldom prosper equally with those which have been established by the voluntary efforts of some christian denomination.

The history of Transylvania University at Lexington, in Kentucky, is cited as one evidence among numerous others, that in America religious influence is essential to the success of such institutions; as the one under consideration, though blessed with ample means and appliances, has been not only a failure as to its object, but has proved a hotbed of infidelity. It is, however, said to be now, after many vicissitudes, in a better state.

The course of instruction in all American colleges is from three to four years. Certain reasonable qualifications are required of candidates for admission, which vary according to the regulations of the different institutions. Generally they embrace a knowledge of English grammar, geography, and the first rudiments of a classical education. The course of instruction commonly pursued embraces the Latin and Greek languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, rhetoric, and practice in English composition; moral and intellectual philosophy, and some treatise of natural law and the law of nations. Particularly (and this is properly held to be a very important object) a thorough knowledge of the constitution and laws of their own country is considered indispensable in all students.

In some colleges provision is made for the study of Hebrew, and several modern languages. Some have additional departments for the study of medicine, theology, and law; somewhat as it is in the University College, London.

Harvard, or Cambridge, embraces all three of these departments. Philadelphia is celebrated as a seat of literature and science, especially of medical science. The Pennsylvania and the Jefferson schools both enjoy a high reputation. There was also formed at Cambridge, in 1847, an association called "The American Association for the Promotion of General Science," similar to the Smithsonian Institution at Washington.

There are not only Normal schools, and schools of medical science, established in America for the female sex, but colleges also, where they are favoured with every advantage in the way of literature to instruct, elevate, and delight the mind, as well as render it energetic and elegant. And connected with colleges for their especial benefit are public libraries for the same object,

containing all that is valuable in science, elegant in accomplishments, delightful in literature, and useful in domestic life. Thus that mind which forms the greatest blessing of man's existence, which by its beauty can render the sunny ways of his life still brighter, and by its fortitude protect him through the darkness of adversity, is no longer suffered to wander on in the old and obscure ways of knowledge, or only furtively to enjoy the new.

"Whatever the defects of American universities may be," says Mr. Dickens, "they disseminate no prejudices, rear no bigots, dig up the buried ashes of no old superstitions, never interpose between the people and their improvement, exclude no man because of his religious opinions.* Above all, in their whole course of study and instruction they recognise a world,—and a broad one too,—lying beyond the college walls."

The Professors of Cambridge, and others of the institutions named, are further represented by the same authority as gentlemen of such learning and varied attainments as would do honour to any society in the civilized world.†

"There are springing up in that land at the present time," says Professor Nichol, "a body of speculative philosophers who will not be surpassed by those of any nation upon the face of the earth. They have more of the practical element in them than the Germans, and more of the speculative than the British. Their philosophy assimilates to that of Greece, and, like that of Plato, will live, because it is adapted to the wants of society. The facility with which the professional man can find a competency in America has set loose a host of active intellects, which are devoting to the development of the educational institutions the most disinterested and unwearied exertions."‡

The total number of public libraries in the United States, independently of colleges, as reported in 1840 to the regent of the Smithsonian Institute, was one hundred and eighty-two: of which forty-three contained over 10,000 volumes each; nine over 20,000 volumes each; and only two over 50,000 volumes each. The number of volumes in all these libraries is 1,204,000. The library of Congress is rated at 45,000 volumes, and is one of the most select and valuable in the country. In

* And why on account of the colour of his skin?
† Notes: *passim*.
‡ Lecture in Edinburgh on the Social Peculiarities of America.

the number of its public libraries America is only exceeded by France, which has two hundred and forty-one: but in the number of volumes she is surpassed by Germany, which has 5,500,000; by France, which has 5,000,000; by Great Britain, which has 2,500,000; and even by Russia, which has 1,500,000.

The census of 1850 gives the following statistics of the libraries in the United States:—"Public, 1217, containing 1,446,015 volumes; school, 12,067, containing 1,647,404 volumes; Sunday-school, 1088, containing 542,321 volumes; college, 213, containing 942,321 volumes; church, 130, containing 58,350 volumes: total, 15,615 libraries, containing 4,636,411 volumes." The largest single library in the world is said to be the Bibliotheque Nationale, in the Rue Richelieu, Paris, containing 1,400,000 volumes, mostly in handsome binding, of coloured leather, enriched with gilt, and placed in solid walls, from floor to ceiling. And yet the reports of the American Tract Society show that within the last five years alone it has put in circulation 4,721,873 volumes, or a number of books exceeding the aggregate collections of all these libraries put together.*

The census returns of 1853, however, or those of the preceding year, report that, independently of private, college, church, or private school libraries, the total number of public libraries is 1202; of volumes, 1,212,858; public school libraries, 10,005;† and the number of volumes, 1,321,349: total libraries, 12,867; total volumes, 2,534,207.‡

There being no taxes on knowledge in the United States, the number and circulation of newspapers and periodical works are beyond anything known in the Old World. The daily journals are more numerous here than in all the kingdoms and states of Europe united: there being to every twenty millions of population in the United States between two or three thousand newspapers, and not more, probably, than one thousand to one hundred and ninety millions of the Old World; while they are reported to be increasing in the Union in the ratio of seventy per annum. It would appear by a late estimate that, in proportion to the population, five times as many papers are pub-

* Christian Almanac, 1857.
† Since estimated at 18,000.
‡ American Almanac.

lished in the United States as in the British Isles, and nearly twice as many as in all other nations combined.

The whole number of newspapers and periodicals in the United States, according to the census returns of 1850, amounted to 2,800: the aggregate circulation of those 2,800 papers and periodicals was about 5,000,000; and the entire number of copies printed annually amounted to 422,600,000; the average circulation was 1,785; giving one publication to every 7,161 free inhabitants of the United States and territories.

There are now, says a more recent authority, about one hundred and forty religious newspapers in the United States, distributing at least 600,000 sheets every week; while magazines, journals, and reviews, of all grades of excellence and utility, have so multiplied, that a catalogue of their titles would fill a respectable volume. It is estimated that the reading matter annually published in the United States, is equal to an octavo volume of 600 pages for every man, woman, and child of the population.

Some of these journals issue 50,000 copies daily; and there are publishers who find an annual demand for 150,000 copies of geographies and arithmetics. A large and respectable paper, published by Greeley, in New York, called "The Tribune," which advocates every kind of social improvement, is said, in its various forms of weekly and semi-weekly to have an almost incredible circulation—estimated at 100,000. And each paper is sold at little more than a penny English per copy, exclusively of a comparatively trifling postage stamp when sent to a distance.

An American consul, on the subject of newspapers, says, "Their number, cheapness, and the extent of their diffusion, are unparalleled. It may, in fact, be asserted, that almost every man in the country reads a newspaper, for every man has a direct personal interest in public affairs; and as the policy of the country has been to facilitate their distribution by the mail, they penetrate everywhere, and constitute, probably, the greatest part of the reading of at least the humbler portion of the agricultural population; and are, there can be little doubt, one of the main elements of the national greatness."

Hence, also, religious publications, in the cheapest possible form, are conveyed to all parts of the Union, in numbers that can scarcely be imagined. One religious newspaper, published by the American Tract Society, issued 30,000,000 copies in about eighteen months—an incomparably larger circulation

than that of any other paper, secular or religious, on our globe. Its subscription price is five dollars a year, and it can be supplied three thousand miles from the place of publication at five and a half dollars per annum, including postage. Some of the periodicals of a similar character, as "The American Messenger," have a circulation still larger, and are sold at twenty-five cents a year.

In the book list of American publications for 1855, it is represented that there are one hundred and seven publishers in New York, fifty-four in Philadelphia, and fifty three in Boston, including the publishing Boards of the religious societies. In all departments, except that of fiction, there were published about eight hundred different works, and including new and old novels, about two thousand.

Everybody reads, and everybody buys books. Every mechanic, of any respectability, has a library of his own. There is no impediment in America to the freest and fullest diffusion of knowledge of every kind among the masses of the people. The humblest labourer indulges in the luxury of his daily paper; and as all read, knowledge penetrates to the lowest grades of human society. Like the sun in the heavens, from day to day, with ceaseless power, it continues to flood with light the whole intellectual domain of the New World.

The means of education and enlightenment thus brought to the door of the poorest cottager, the hard working man is enabled to read the daily history of the world at his own fireside, and to his own family, instead of frequenting the alehouse or the gin-shop to hear it read for his own exclusive information and entertainment, at a far greater money cost, and at an incalculable amount of positive demoralization.

"If an observant stranger," says Mons. Tocqueville, "only singles out the learned, he will be astonished to find how rare they are; but if he counts the ignorant, the American people will appear to be the most enlightened community in the world." And to this extension of knowledge among the people of the United States, and to the establishment of their extraordinary state of society, no one thing, nor all things together, except the Pulpit and the almost universal prevalence of schools, have contributed so much as the Newspaper and Periodical Press. The number, cheapness, and universal diffusion of newspapers and periodical literature, in addition to the direct benefit they confer, have been great incentives to the national education and

improvement. In Prussia, and every kingdom or state where the Press has been limited or restrained, knowledge has made little progress among the masses, although the means of school instruction have been general.

The amazing power of the Daily Press in particular, has been thought by some to be an evil attribute of the great political institute of the United States. It has been thought to create socialism, and to generate and excite political discontent and rebellion. Here, as in all other countries, doubtless, editors of newspapers are to be found who disgrace their attainments and prostitute their advantages, by pandering to the depraved and vicious taste which they should labour to amend,—unprincipled, malignant, reckless men, who make their pages the vehicle of public slander,—incompetent men, whose productions daily proclaim their ignorance, imbecility, and errors,—exhaling a moral pestilence which, like the nopal, distils its poisonous ichor on all who come beneath the shadow of its branches.

But if the Press is conducted by some of the worst, it is also directed by some of the best of men;—if by infidels, socialists, and malignants, so also, but to a far greater extent, by christians and philanthropists.

Thus if the Press here, as in all other countries where it has been unfettered, has been found to be powerful for evil, it has been found much more powerful for good. So much, indeed, do its advantages preponderate, that on a fair balance, collected from authentic history, there would appear to be no proportion between the benefits and the mischiefs which mankind have derived from its influence.

All past history certainly gives its testimony against the imputation of social disorganization and national commotion as a consequence of the general diffusion of political knowledge through a cheap unfettered medium. The socialism of Vienna and France,—the rebellions, as they were termed, of the Magyars and Neapolitans, Sicilians and Germans,—and the war-breathing spirit of the Russian hordes,—all point to another and a very different origin.

Nor are the criminal population of a country generally readers of newspapers or periodicals. By far the greater proportion of culprits cannot read newspapers or cheap literature of any kind, being entirely ignorant of the art of lettered knowledge. Such characters are therefore safe from any pernicious influence which such vehicles of knowledge may instil.

The advantages of an unfettered Daily Press are numerous and immense. If the Press is not the leader of the national mind, it is the great corrective power for the abatement of all great public evils, the instrument by which it arouses public sentiment, and brings it to bear against the parties by whom those evils are perpetrated. To a very great extent, doubtless, it reflects public opinion. It is an index to the minds of men, demonstrating what are their views and wishes, and it may also be regarded as a safety-valve, by which much acrimonious and democratic feeling escapes, instead of bursting forth into violence and outrage. At the same time, it supplies topics for conversation both on social, political, and religious subjects to the inhabitants scattered through the vast regions of America, thus diverting their minds from the mischiefs of scandal and absorption in their own more petty local interests and affairs, and informing those who live most remote from the seat of Government of all the popular questions and events of the day,—of all that occurs not only in the vicinity of Washington and the Empire State, but throughout the whole of their wide-spreading regions and throughout the world; benefitting them to an incalculable degree in promoting union, in creating a general thirst for education,—in a word, the press makes education a necessary of life. Even the backwoodsman reaps the advantages of its softening, harmonizing, elevating influence at his own fireside, in his far-off western home.

The periodical press of America is highly respectable as to character, as well as very extensive. More than four hundred periodicals, exclusive of newspapers, are always in course of publication. The National and Harper's magazines, the North American Review and the various monthlies, edited by Washington Irving and others almost equally celebrated, nearly rival any of the same class in England, both as to character and circulation; and the same may also be said of Sartain's and Godey's magazines, and thousands of the exclusively religious monthly, or more or less frequent periodicals and journals. And while many of the periodicals of America will not suffer by a comparison with any in Europe, the better class of newspapers in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, with those of most of the populous towns, will compare favourably with most of the English journals in the style and temper of their leading articles and political disquisitions, as also in the statesmanlike mode of treating their subjects, as well as in the general talent with which they are conducted.

It will thus be seen that the food for the mind being here untaxed, as well as food for the body, America has greatly the advantage of England and her colonies in the rapid and wide diffusion of knowledge.

It is a fact that can hardly be regarded as otherwise than astounding by those to whom it may not have been familiar, that until lately there was a threefold tax imposed upon education and general knowledge in England, consisting of a duty on paper, the advertisement duty, and the penny stamp impost, which weighed like an incubus upon intellect, impeding the operations of the general machinery for education, and opposing a barrier to the extension of all collateral civilising influences, as well as to the promotion of good morals and religion. As the result of the absence of any tax on advertisements in the United States, advertising is practised to such an extent, that the newspapers of New York alone contain more advertisements than those of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Such an exemption, it need hardly be said, bears powerfully on the interests of trade.

Not only here, as in England, do cheap publications teem from the press, but here, as there, also, the most able men of the age,—only in greater number and with greater zeal,—have set themselves to divest science, as far as possible, of all that is abstruse and forbidding, and so to simplify the enunciation of its principles as to enable the comparatively poor unlettered student to appropriate its treasures. Philosophical truths, unknown to the most eminent men of former times, or but dimly seen by them, are now explained with a simplicity that reduces them to the comprehension of the most moderate capacity. At the same time, these benefits are conferred, it may almost be said, gratuitously;—like the fabled fountain of Florida, pouring forth its revivifying waters to every recipient. So, throughout this vast empire, streams of light and knowledge flow forth to cheer and bless its vast and continually augmenting population.

With cheap and easy books, cheap and easy lectures, mechanics' institutes, circulating libraries, and other means, full opportunity is afforded to the operative classes,—at least in all the chief towns in the empire,—to acquire a kind of knowledge which even so recently as the last generation was confined to persons in affluent circumstances and with ample leisure.

In the various departments of lighter reading an unequalled supply is offered. The works of many of the most popular authors of other countries are reprinted at a price so low as to bring them within the reach even of the poorest; while the domestic writers, whose name is legion, are incessantly producing, in one form or another, new contributions to the stores of cheap literature.

It may be true that much of the knowledge acquired in America is more superficial than solid or satisfying. Let it be allowed that what in some instances affects to be science and learning is conceited ignorance, still there is so large an amount of genuine information diffused throughout the country as to exercise a most potent influence on the social and national interests and character.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Religion.—Religion recognized and protected, but not supported by the State. Ecclesiastical establishments repudiated by the framers of the Constitution. Religion, notwithstanding, the basis of the laws. Opinions of the founders of the Commonwealth on the subject. Great progress of religion under these circumstances. Perfect religious freedom and equality. Recognition of this principle by Congress in the choice of chaplains. Operation of the voluntary principle. Number of places of worship. Ministers and congregations in the Union. General statistics from last census. Great aversion to a Church and State alliance amongst ministers and people of all religious denominations. All religious institutions supported by voluntary effort. None by individual States or the Federal Government. Great efficiency of the voluntary principle demonstrated by its success. Embarrassment of the episcopal church when first thrown on her own resources. Beneficial results of her self-reliance.

With literature has come knowledge, and with knowledge truth.

In no part of the world does religion flourish in the same degree as in America, as it is here free from the trammels of State influence, and left alone to its own spontaneous, unobstructed operation.

No sooner had the first settlers in New England set their feet upon its shores, than they began to accomplish the object of their religious mission. Thus also did good men of different denominations in other parts of the coast at subsequent periods. Previously, or at the same time, or in succession after the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers on Plymouth Rock,* came the noble and generous Oglethorpe to Georgia; the Baptists, Moravians, and Lutherans to the Carolinas and New York; and the Huguenots of France both to New York and to the shores of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes. All these appointed pious and zealous ministers for themselves, and established seminaries for the instruction of the natives, whence scholars were selected to preach the gospel among their savage countrymen.

Religion is considered by the legislatures of the different States of this great republic as absolutely necessary to their

* Virginia was settled some years before Plymouth Rock.

existence and prosperity as a nation; and it is, therefore,—contrary to the opinions generally entertained in Europe,—distinctly recognised and protected by the laws. In America, as in England, religion is the basis of the common law. The Congress distinctly acknowledges the sanctity of the Sabbath, and provides for the maintenance of religious worship in its army and navy; while it is equally regarded by the great majority of the State Governments and the civil authorities.

President Tyler, in his message to the Senate and House of Representatives in 1844, commenced with a declaration, that "If any people ever had cause to render up thanks to the Supreme Being for the parental care and protection extended to them in all the trials and difficulties to which they have been from time to time exposed, the Americans are that people. From the settlement of our forefathers on this continent," he continued, "through the dangers attendant upon the occupation of a savage wilderness,—through a long period of colonial dependance,—through the war of the revolution,—in the wisdom which led to the adoption of the existing republican form of Government,—in the hazards incident to a war subsequently waged with one of the most powerful nations of the earth,—in the increase of our population,—in the spread of the arts and sciences,—and in the strength and durability conferred on political institutions, emanating from the people and sustained by their will,—the superintendence of an over-ruling Providence has been plainly visible;" and he justly and piously added, that "preparatory to entering upon the high duties of legislation, it becomes us humbly to acknowledge dependance upon Him as our guide and protector, and to implore a continuance of His parental watchfulness over our beloved country."*

Apart from the subordinate influences which the mere statesman recognises true religion to possess, our American brethren consider that it is advantageous to the State,—that it protects liberty,—diminishes the necessity of public restraints,—and, to a considerable degree, supersedes the use of force in the administration of the law, from the consideration that religious men are a law to themselves. They regard religion as the soul of freedom,—the safeguard of the national prosperity and

* During the administration of the Government of the country by President Polk, commencing in 1845, it is understood that he discontinued balls at the Government House from religious scruples, and regularly maintained domestic or family worship in the great Republican Palace.

honour,—they believe that it unites and concentrates public opinion against injustice and oppression, and spreads a spirit of equity and goodwill throughout the community. They consider, indeed, that pure and unadulterated Christianity is not merely friendly to the civil and sacred liberties of mankind, but that it is the only system on earth by which the sweets of rational liberty, and the full enjoyment of natural rights, can be secured;—a fact incontrovertibly established; as, wherever religion comes in power so as to obtain all the influence that it demands over the character, it strikes at the very root of every passion that is depraved and selfish, and necessarily restrains a man from tyrannising over others. Thus President Washington, in his farewell address to the people of the United States on his resigning the executive government,—which address has justly been regarded as admirably fitted to crown the services of that eminent statesman, and deserving to be held in veneration as a legacy of wisdom,—strongly affirms the necessity of religion to the wellbeing of a nation. "Of all the dispositions and habits," says he, "which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism who should labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness,—these firmest props of men and citizens." The great Washington thus at a glance discerned the essential importance of the religious element in the State, and the impossibility of there being a true State without it. "He thus recognised the inseparable connection between all true government on earth and the invisible government of God;—an idea indispensable to all true nationality, involving as it does the sacredness of an oath,—the true doctrine of a national conscience,—and of a solemn national accountability. He saw that there must be in every State a predominant religion or a predominant irreligion,—Christianity or atheism,—and that a State could not permanently exist or prosper unless Christianity was made the recognised foundation of the law of the land. At the same time, the forecasting mind of the framers of the Constitution solved the problem of the age, how far the purest toleration of action and opinion was consistent with that predominance both of religion and of race, which in some most liberal and catholic form would seem to be an essential element in all true nationality."*

* Harper's Magazine.

Washington, Roger Sherman, Franklin, and Jefferson,—but especially the latter, with some of his illustrious colleagues,—seem to have understood, better than the political economists of Europe, the nature and proper functions of Government in regard to religion.

"The finest problem in legislation," says Mr. Burke, "is what a State ought to take upon itself to direct, by the public wisdom, and what it ought to leave, with as little interference as possible, to individual discretion:" and this problem the framers of the Constitution solved, by abstaining from all legislation on the subject of religion, at the same time that they recognised the necessity of its existence. In a word, they saw and acted upon the conviction, that though religion was necessary to the State, State influence was not necessary to religion.

A State-religion, indeed, as already said, is not only here unknown, but it is most palpably seen everywhere to be unnecessary. Churches and chapels are found rising up one after another in every city, town, and village of the Union, and generally with crowded congregations.*

"The Tribune," in gleaning from a recent report to Congress by Mr. Kennedy, superintendent of the census, makes the following statement:—The churches or edifices for divine worship in the United States number 36,011; of which the Methodists own one-third, or 12,467; the Baptists nearly one-fourth, or 8,701; the Presbyterians the next number, or 4,584; and if we count the Dutch Reformed, Congregational, Lutheran, and German Reformed with the Presbyterian (and the differences between these seem slight and unessential), the total is 8,112. But the estimated capacity of the Presbyterian and allied churches is greater in the average than that of the Baptist and Methodist churches; so that while all the Methodist churches will accommodate but 3,200,833 worshippers, and all the Baptist but 3,130,878, the Presbyterians, and related churches aforesaid, have room for 3,705,211 worshippers. The Catholics have but 1,112 churches, accommodating 620,050 worshippers.† The Episcopalians have 1422 churches, accom-

* "The churches of the different denominations," says the Earl of Carlisle, "are extremely well filled."—*Lecture on America.*

† The Romanist progress in this country is not such as greatly to encourage its friends or alarm its enemies, as we gather by the following statistics from the Catholic almanac.—There are in all *forty-one* dioceses, of which number thirty-

modating 625,818 worshippers. The average number which each church edifice in the Union will accommodate is 884; the total value of church property, 80,410,039 dollars; and if all the churches should be filled at one time they would hold 13,849,869 persons—probably something near the total population that could at one time attend.*

"Every little colony of houses," says Mr. Dickens, "has its church and school-house peeping from amidst the white roofs and shady trees." "In Genessee," says another tourist of equal credit, "a small village, with a population of only two thousand, they have four churches." A statistical table in Captain Murray's Lands of the Slave and Free, shows that the same liberal supply exists all over the States, accommodation for 14,000,000 being provided for a scattered population of 23,000,000.†

The States contained in 1833 thirteen thousand ministers, in nearly two hundred denominations; and their incomes averaged 1000 dollars, or £225 sterling each, besides the cost of churches and chapels.

"We hear much," says "The Christian Miscellany," "of the spiritual degeneracy of our day, and of the rapid diminution

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one report a population of 1,844,500. If the ten not reported average the same which is hardly probable, it would give us 405,000, which added to the foregoing make a total of 2,249,500. Two millions and a half of Catholics in the United States is all that can be made out on this showing. Nor does their past or present increase equal what many have been led to suppose. The first Catholic bishop was consecrated in 1790. In 1810, fifty years after, there were—1 archbishop, 13 bishops, 301 priests, 418 churches, and 1,000,000 members. In 1855, fifteen years later, there were 7 archbishops, 33 bishops, 1700 priests, 1824 churches, and about, as we have said, 2,500,000 communicants, or rather Catholic people, young and old, male and female. Their colleges and female seminaries are as follows:—

In 1808	Colleges	1	Female Schools	0
" 1820	"	6	"	20
" 1840	"	8	"	40
" 1850	"	17	"	91
" 1854	"	20	"	119
" 1855	"	21	"	117

The Catholics themselves complain of losing fifty or sixty per cent. of the Irish population by emigration to this country; and certainly their increase by no means compares with that of the Methodists, Baptists, and some other denominations; and hence we do not think that there is the remotest probability of their ever getting the upperhand in our country. We probably make ten converts from them to one made by them from us.—*Prim. Magazine, Feb. 1st, 1856.*

* Recorder copied from Baptist Magazine, 1855. The Westminster Review, for 1854, states that in 1850 the number of churches and chapels was 36,221, with accommodation for 13,967,449. Vide, also, American Christian Almanac for 1853 or 1854. P. 62.

† The chapter on "Church, Schools, and Law."

of candidates for the Gospel ministry, and yet if statistics carefully gathered may be depended upon, evangelical ministers were never more numerous in proportion to the population than at the present moment; and notwithstanding the vast emigration of Romanists and open infidels, the ratio of church-members to population is larger than thirty years ago. We would not apologise for the worldliness and spiritual apathy of our churches, or the want of earnestness and devotion in the ministry, but we honestly believe that American Christianity was never, as a whole, purer in doctrine, or more vigorous in its aggressive attacks upon a wicked world than now."

The "Foreign Missionary," the organ of the Old School Missionary Board, gives the following statistics of ministers, church-members, and population at three different periods:—

Years.	Population.	Ministers.
In 1832	13,713,342	9,537
In 1843	18,765,822	17,073
In 1854	25,953,000	25,437

Or thus:

In 1832, 1 Minister to every 1,437 souls.
In 1843, 1 " " 1,003 "
In 1854, 1 " " 1,020 "

RELATIVE NUMBER OF COMMUNICANTS.

In 1832—Population	13,713,344
Deduct under ten years of age	3,657,345
	10,056,999
Of whom communicants in Evangelical churches	1,342,461
In 1843—Population	18 765,822
Deduct under ten years of age	5,984,584
	12,784,209
Of whom communicants in Evangelical churches	2,344,762
In 1854—Population	25,953,000
Deduct under ten years of age	7,371,000
	18,582,000
Of whom communicants in Evangelical churches	3,337,822

Or thus:

In 1832, 1 communicant to every 7½ souls.
In 1843, 1 " " 5 "
In 1854, 1 " " 5½ "

Dr. Baird, in the late edition of his valuable work, "Religion in America" (1855), gives the following statement of the five

great evangelical denominations in the United States. The Congregationalists and Presbyterians being in many important respects the same, he places *both* under the head of Presbyterians.

	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.	Population.
Baptist	14,670	9,476	1,322,469	5,900,000
Methodist	14,000	8,740	1,803,794	5,500,000
Presbyterian ...	10,000	8,472	926,318	5,500,000
Episcopalian ...	1,000	1,742	108,850	1,012,000
Lutheran	1,900	1,000	225,000	750,000

Nearly all the population of the United States profess to be christians, and take the Bible as the basis of their faith, however much they may differ in their theological opinions. All persons at the same time are allowed the right of worshipping God according to the dictates of their consciences. Nothing is imposed as an article of religious belief. Intolerance is unknown. The word toleration is obsolete, expunged from the American vocabulary. Religion is regarded entirely as a matter between man and his God, because man is accountable only to God for his belief. None are ineligible to office on account of their belief, any more than those who deride Christianity, or who believe it imperfectly or in parts. Here the question is not what is a man's creed, but what is a man's conduct, his character. The religious liberty here enjoyed excludes all reference to creeds. Jews have all the privileges of Christians. Nor does any danger to religion arise from this leniency, as the Constitution is inviolable, and therefore uninfluenced by any officials of the Government or changes of administration. The Constitution is unalterable, except by the voice of the great majority of the people as expressed through the different State governments. Whatever the creed therefore of the President, it would be of little consequence, as he could exert no influence calculated to disturb or alter the present basis of the Constitution.

Of all errors, none are so irrational and pernicious as that of attempting to enforce uniformity of opinion by penal laws; while the thing itself is impossible, as every sincere christian must feel it his duty, at whatever sacrifice, to obey God rather than man. Nothing is so insane and unjust as for a Government to assume the responsibility of holding in abeyance intellectual powers which God has made for action, and placing upon moral energies fetters of a kind which He never intended them to wear. The laws of God invest all mankind with certain

of candidates for the Gospel ministry, and yet if statistics carefully gathered may be depended upon, evangelical ministers were never more numerous in proportion to the population than at the present moment; and notwithstanding the vast emigration of Romanists and open infidels, the ratio of church-members to population is larger than thirty years ago. We would not apologise for the worldliness and spiritual apathy of our churches, or the want of earnestness and devotion in the ministry, but we honestly believe that American Christianity was never, as a whole, purer in doctrine, or more vigorous in its aggressive attacks upon a wicked world than now."

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rights, which are neither dependent upon any earthly tribunal nor annullable by earthly legislation. While no human law can add force to the Divine law, it is equally plain that no human enactment at variance with it is binding.

These views being general in the States, and founded upon the New Testament, which is obviously not only a message of peace, but a law of perfect liberty, though not to be used to licentiousness (inculcating, indeed, the highest order of religious liberty), it is natural to suppose that any compulsory contribution for the support of religion would be considered by every American a direct encroachment on personal liberty.

The American Government, indeed, recognise a right to perfect religious liberty. They regard man as he is represented in the Scriptures, as a free agent, and they consider that being a free agent, he is responsible to God alone for his belief; arguing that if he is not thus responsible, he is not a free agent, —that God having given man freedom of will as to good and evil, He has also given him freedom of will and liberty of choice as to his religious creed. In other words, they allow that every man has a sacred and inalienable right to worship God in a manner most satisfactory to himself,—most in accordance with the dictates of his own mind; that this right no government or legislature can without injustice and oppression directly or indirectly infringe, because it is right for every man to do everything for himself which is not inconsistent with the good of others. This is far beyond the limits of the "Toleration Act." The word toleration implies permission, but not a right; it presupposes incomplete religious liberty, and in reality involves it. The power to tolerate once admitted, the power to refuse toleration abroad and at home must follow. Religious equality and religious liberty are synonymous.

The idea of toleration is a relic of the effects of the papal usurpation. That usurpation did not tolerate; and Protestants or the prelacy thought it was a great act of charity for them to concede what the papacy had thus refused. The very word toleration is therefore repudiated by all generous reflecting men. The Toleration Act, indeed, may be regarded as little less than blasphemous, and might be properly entitled, "An Act to permit Almighty God to receive the worship of his creatures."

It was gratifying evidence that the sentiments of American are beginning to prevail even in England on this great question when Lord Brougham, in his late introduction of the "Religious

Disabilities Bill" into the House of Lords, remarked, that "toleration was a word totally inapplicable to religious opinions and worship. The Dissenter was no more bound to be grateful to the Established Church for allowing him to worship and believe after the dictates of his own conscience, than the Church was bound to be grateful to the Dissenter for his corresponding sufferance towards it."

Every man has in America a right freely to disseminate as well as to profess his honest opinion. And this is regarded as an *equal* right. If it is possessed by the Christian, so it is also by the Jew; if by the Protestant, so also by the Papist; if by the believer, so also by the unbeliever. It is an universal right. No man is disqualified for any office on account of his religious creed. So far as the law is concerned, a Jew, for example, may serve the office of sheriff, or be elevated to the presidential chair.

While the connection of religion with the Government in the United States (as has been shown) is organic, and the Government itself has all the solidity of resting on a religious basis,—while there is no restriction upon the rights of conscience,—while no element of the religious life of the nation is excluded,—yet no denomination of christians can be the machine of the State, and no pecuniary exactions can be made for the support of any particular section of the christian church.

Even within the walls of the Capitol religion has a sufficient guarantee that the badges and pride of ecclesiastical distinctions are abolished,—that an equalizing system reduces all religious persuasions to the same level,—that every trace of sectarian favouritism is expunged from the civil code, and expelled by the constitution of the land. A chaplain of Congress is elected from the ministers of the different religious sections, by a majority of the members. An Episcopalian, a Wesleyan, a Presbyterian, a Congregationalist, a Baptist, or a Roman Catholic—all are equally eligible. "Thus," says Mr. Caswell, the Episcopalian minister, whose authority has been before cited, "none of the existing denominations is preferred before the others. The chaplains appointed by the Government are often Presbyterians and Methodists, sometimes Episcopalians, and occasionally Roman Catholics."

This religious freedom and equality is considered the most glorious characteristic of American laws. For this the Pilgrim Fathers toiled, and suffered, and died; and their posterity have appreciated the noble heritage bequeathed to them.

The voluntary system being thus universally recognised and adopted, has abundantly proved its efficiency by the degree in which real Christianity has been diffused throughout this vast continent. "During the last fifty years," says a writer on religious statistics in the United States, "the number of members of the evangelical churches has increased from 400,000 to 3,500,000, being an increase of eightfold, while our population has increased only fourfold." A sufficient refutation of the assertion which some writers have made, that the increase of piety in America does not keep pace with the increase of their rapidly-growing population. And this fact is sustained also by the authority of Mr. Caswell. "With the happy union of heart among the different denominations of christian ministers, there is a union of effort; and thus a knowledge of the general principles of Christianity is diffused by various means throughout the country. A number of religious societies, all feeling their equality, endeavour to act upon the principle of disseminating those doctrines, and those alone, in regard to which all evangelical denominations agree. Hence it is that the Bible, with the exception of a few of the recently-recognised States and territories, is found in almost every house in the land. 'In travelling in the high mountains of Georgia and Carolina,' says a gentleman of veracity, 'which are covered with a number of small farmers, who are generally Methodists or Baptists, distinguished for their sobriety, I have never entered three or four cabins where I did not see a copy of the Bible.' Hence it is that tracts are circulated in almost endless profusion, strongly inculcating the necessity of personal religion, although putting out of sight whatever relates to modes of worship, ecclesiastical authority, or outward ordinances."*

Thus America shows the noble and gratifying spectacle of the whole christian church within her borders sustained solely by the voluntary energies of the people, and yet thriving throughout an immense empire, receiving the homage of men of every rank, and sending forth its missionaries to distant realms. Fluctuations there may be; but the tide is ever flowing,—the advancement is actual and permanent.

The voluntary system, in relation to religion, was once an experiment in the States. The question had never been tried,

* Caswell's American Church.

indeed, in any other country since the first ages of Christianity, whether or not an ecclesiastical establishment was essential to the support of the christian religion. And when James the First drove forth the sturdy Puritans to the New World,* with the sarcastic observation that they should go to test their schemes of ecclesiastical government, little did that narrow-minded, bigotted monarch and his minions anticipate the results. These schemes of ecclesiastical government *have* been tested, and they are no longer an experiment.† It is decided by the strongest of all evidence, the evidence of facts, that religion, like philosophy, *can* make its own way in the world by its own intrinsic excellence.

The German philosopher, Gervinus, in a work lately published, entitled, "An Introduction to the History of the Nineteenth Century," in discussing the doctrines of the Reformation, and their influence upon the world, thus speaks of Roger Williams, and the doctrines first evolved by that illustrious Reformer:—

"In accordance with these principles, Roger Williams insisted in Massachusetts upon allowing entire freedom of conscience, and upon entire separation of the Church and the State. But he was obliged to flee, and in 1636 he formed in Rhode Island a small and new society, in which perfect freedom in matters of faith was allowed, and in which the majority ruled in all civil affairs. Here in a little State, the fundamental principles of political and ecclesiastical liberty practically prevailed, before they were even taught in any of the schools of philosophy in Europe. At that time people predicted only a short existence for these democratical experiments,—universal suffrage, universal eligibility to office, the annual change of rulers, perfect religious freedom,—the Miltonian doctrines of schism. But not only have these ideas and these forms of government maintained themselves here, but precisely from this little State have they extended themselves throughout the United States. They

* "I will compel them to conform," said he, "or I will harry them out of the kingdom."

† The second charter for Rhode Island, granted by Charles II. in 1663, and probably sketched by Roger Williams, allows every person and community freely and fully to have and to enjoy his own and their judgments and consciences in matters of religious concernments. In alluding to this, some years after, Williams observes, "His majesty declared that he would experiment whether civil government would consist with such liberty of conscience."

have conquered the aristocratic tendencies in Carolina and New York, the High Church in Virginia, the Theocracy in Massachusetts, and the Monarchy in all America. They have given laws to a continent, and formidable through their moral influence, *they lie at the bottom of all the democratic movements which are now shaking the nations of Europe.*"

It is now proved that it is only in the atmosphere of political freedom and religious equality where social rights are not systematically invaded, and exclusive social interests not transmitted by aristocratic pride, that religion can thrive in all its native vigour and luxuriance.

"Religion," says an American divine, "to be completely successful, must be free. Experience shows that in this country it has the energy of liberty,—it has free course, and is glorified. Beyond a doubt it will ultimately triumph. At this time (1840) we are more than a million of communicants in the several Protestant Churches of the United States; probably a larger proportion than exists in any other country in the world. The number increases at the rate of 100,000 a year. Such increase is perfectly unexampled since the days of the apostles. Religion will triumph, and no power on earth can prevent it; and it will triumph precisely because it is free."*

The intelligent clergy of all denominations understand this, and would be the very foremost to oppose any effort to bind religion to the car of the State.

Up to the period of the Revolutionary War, the number of Episcopalians was very small, except in the southern colonies. They subsequently, *i. e.*, in the reign of Charles II., took measures to obtain an Episcopate, but failed. The subject was afterwards agitated with no better success, although being considered hitherto a part of the establishment of the mother country, Episcopalianism had been supported by a public tax.

But when the colonies were actually separated from Great Britain, the destruction of the Church appeared almost inevitable, notwithstanding the fact that the great Washington himself was an Episcopalian. "A few years nearly overthrew the work which had been slowly carried forward by the exertions of a century and a half; and had not Omnipotence interposed the ruin would have been complete. The fostering hand to which the American Church owed a long continuance of care and pro-

* Religion and Education in the United States, by Dr. Lang.

tection was withdrawn, and the Propagation Society no longer rendered its accustomed aid. Many of the clergy were thus left entirely destitute, and some"—it is presumed the mere hirelings of the flock—"were obliged to betake themselves to secular employments for support."*

On the 25th of September, 1785, the First General Convention was held in Philadelphia, and no longer could it be said of the clergy that their loyalty to the king was treason to the State, nor from the nature of the altered state of things could it be longer said of them,

> "How many, could we make the search,
> Who, while they hate the gospel, love the church."

The church had been entirely thrown on its own resources like an infant deprived of the sympathy and guidance of a careful parent.

It was foretold that unless religion was connected with and supported by the Civil Power, itinerant agitators would propound any doctrine they pleased till the people in general would be left without a christian pastor, and ultimately without any true religion.

At the termination of the eighteenth century the church was completely re-organized, and was gradually recovering from the tremendous shock sustained at the Revolution. The really evangelical of its members had by this time learned in some measure to rely on their own resources, and its best ministers were, in some instances, comfortably supported by their flocks. No great enterprises were undertaken, however, because a hard struggle was necessary to maintain the ground already occupied.

It was reserved for another century to witness the rapid development of the energies of the church and the consequent increase of its numbers, its piety, and its zeal, as the result of absolute self-reliance.

"From that period to the year 1839," adds Mr. Casswell, "it has gained on the fast extending population of the United States, so that it has quadrupled itself during the last twenty-four years; while the population has little more than doubled."

The same testimony is supplied by another well-known author, Judge Haliburton, whose prejudices in favour of Episcopacy are known to be inveterate.

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* Casswell's American Church.

"As soon as the Episcopal Church of the United States was released from the authority of the English hierarchy, persecution ceased, and, like all other bodies, it was permitted to take its chance for popular favour unmolested and unheeded. Its growth has exceeded all expectation; and its further increase, from obvious causes, is, from the progress of the nation, destined to be no less certain and rapid, for, unconnected with the State, she confines herself to her own calling. She neither asks nor desires a union with it; she has no ambition but to perform her allotted task, and no object but the meritorious one of being a worthy servant of her blessed Lord and Master. She endeavours to make her people good christians, and in doing so, makes them good subjects."*

A shrewd writer, a graduate of the University of Oxford, and a clergyman of the Church of England, in an address to the bishops and clergy of England, makes the following observations on the state of religion in America:—

"It is now proved to a demonstration that it is not necessary for civil governments to profane religion by converting it into an engine of the State, in order to keep the people in obedience; for never did a new government so readily consolidate itself as that of the United States; and while all other governments have been overturned or shaken to the centre so as to tremble for their existence,† this one, which had dissevered the Church from the State, has not only remained safe and quiet, but has risen to a degree of strength and influence which has astonished the world."‡

In no part of the earth does religion enjoy such triumphs!

The christian who is awake to the instructions which God is affording by his providence, must see the high superiority which the church here enjoys in consequence of its being freed from the trammels of the State. Even Episcopalians, whose system leads them to cling to a State alliance, have been converted by events; and a Bishop in America has shown himself the most keen-sighted to discern all approaches towards political interference with religion, and the most determined in his resistance of the incipient evil. He has warned his clergy of the

* Rule and Misrule of the English in America.

† Alluding to the late French and other Continental Revolutions.

‡ An Address to the Bishops and Clergy of the Church of England, on the expected Dissolution of her Alliance with the State, by a Graduate of the University of Oxford.

danger, and has offended many in this country, where he once received a flattering entertainment, by exposing the evils which the Episcopal church here endures in comparison with the unfettered liberty which it enjoys in the United States.

At a meeting recently held in New Zealand, for the purpose of promoting the adoption of a representative system of Episcopal church government in that country, similar to that adopted by Dissenters, the Rev. Mr. Godley, a minister of the Established Church, thus addressed the meeting, and such words, from such a man, speak volumes on the subject:—

"It is often said by enemies of the English Reformed Church, that she is a creature of the State, dependent on her establishment and her endowment for existence, and incapable of standing like other ecclesiastical bodies, humanly speaking, by her own strength, and working with her own means; and I confess, if I were to look at the present state of our colonial churches alone, I should find it difficult to rebut the sneer.

"But I can show another side of the picture.

"When the United States declared their independence, it may be said that the church fell with the monarchy. Episcopacy, especially in communion with the Church of England, was, for obvious reasons, not only unfashionable, but almost infamous. The endowments of the Church, which had been very large in some of the States, were taken away; her edifices were destroyed; even her communion plate was sold; numbers of her clergy emigrated, together with the most earnest members of their flocks.

"In short, it is impossible to conceive a more complete and overwhelming prostration than the American Episcopal Church then suffered; one would have said that within the lifetime of a generation her existence in the United States, like that of the British Constitution on which she was said to depend, would be a matter of history. Now let us look at the sequel. For some little time the depression consequent on the revolution continued; but the American Churchmen who were left were not dismayed; they had sense to see that new measures were required to meet the emergency, and faith to believe that they would be sufficient to meet it. Now it is instructive for us to remark that the first step they took, when forced to shift for themselves, was the formation of a governing body. The first general convention of the American Church met in 1785, only three years after the peace. The first American bishop was

consecrated in 1787. The church was organized with a rapidity and completeness eminently characteristic of the administrative talents of the people. The civil constitution of the Republic serving naturally to a great extent as a model.

"A general convention was constituted, consisting of all the bishops, and of clerical and lay representatives from each diocese, and possessing full legislative powers for the whole church;—diocesan conventions exercised similar powers within their respective jurisdictions;—vestries administered parishes. By degrees the outline thus sketched was filled up; canons of discipline were passed; the liturgy was revised; provision was made for education, for foreign missions, for domestic extension. Scattered and helpless individuals became an animated, active, working body, far inferior, indeed, to most of the other denominations in outward circumstances, but at least able for the first time to do justice to itself, and make free use of its own resources.

"I cannot find out what the number of Episcopalian clergymen was after the revolution. I can only ascertain such isolated facts as that the State of New York, which in 1844 had three hundred and four clergymen, had only five in 1787. I am compelled, therefore, to begin my general comparison at a later date. In 1814, I find that the Episcopalian Church numbered two hundred and forty clergymen, officiating in organized parishes. In 1844, the last year for which I have been able to procure the statistics, it had twelve hundred and two. Assuming that its congregations multiplied in equal proportions, and there seems no reason for doubting it, we have here the fact that in thirty years the number of American Churchmen increased five-fold, or about twice as fast as the whole population of the Union. So that even if we allow, for argument, that immigration supplied them to an extent proportioned to their original numbers, they must have more than doubled themselves by conversion alone in thirty years. And that they have done so, at least, seems to be shown by the fact, that in 1839 more than one-half of their clergy, and nearly one-half of their bishops, had been Presbyterians, Congregationalists, Methodists, or Baptists.

"I need not say that the proportion of converts is likely to have been larger among the congregations than among those who rose to office and dignity in the Church.

"Again, the American Church gets plenty of money. Her clergy, which must now amount to at least sixteen hundred,

have an average income of £200 a year; and if I add the funds raised for church building, education, missions, and other church purposes, I am sure I shall be within the mark if I set the income of the American Church at half a million sterling annually; that is, speaking roughly, 10s. a head for the members of her communion, or £2 10s. for every family.

"'In fact, we do not want money,' says her historian, 'we have funds enough; we want men for the ministry.'

"This is the natural result of the zeal and interest which is engendered among her members by an active participation in the management of her affairs. In every department of her proceedings the advantages of her system are visible.

"When an extension of the episcopate is required, she is not obliged to go, like some other people I have heard of, to a heterogeneous legislature, composed of men of every religion or of no religion; nor to a colonial minister, who may be her bitter enemy, in order to ask leave to consecrate a bishop, and discuss the boundaries of a diocese, and the amount of the endowment. The American Church settles that for herself, as every church ought.

"But I need not expatiate longer on these advantages of system and organization which the American Church enjoys. I have been induced to say thus much on her constitution and progress, because as presenting the only instance of an ecclesiastical body in communion with the Church of England, which possesses a regularly constituted representative Government, she affords the only available precedent for our own case, and also because the signal success which has attended a career begun under such discouraging circumstances, seems to show that in order to fulfil her mission the Church of England does not require endowments or State connection;—she only wants to have her hands untied, a clear stage, and no favour. . . . Of course I do not consider self-government is the only cause of the success of the American Church; but it does appear not only to be remarkably coincident with that success, but to constitute almost the only material difference between her position and that of the colonial churches, which are so far behind her in available life and energy."*

* Speech of the Rev. Mr. Godley, at a meeting convened at Christ Church, Canterbury Settlement, New Zealand, Australia, by the commission of the Bishop of the diocese, extracted from the "Lyttleton Times."

"As to dissenting interests," says another clergyman of the Church of England, "we all know that it is not by aid of parliaments, of kings, or queens, or ministers of state, that they become progressive, but in spite of these great earthly powers. Their faith streams against the wind; and if we were visibly cut off from all earthly aid,—visibly subjected to all forms of social and political injustice,—visibly reduced to rely on ourselves alone, with God for our only helper, I cannot help thinking that we, in course of years, should be very much stronger than by following the present mean-spirited and pimping course."

Lord Brougham, in his introduction to the Religious Disabilities Bill, before referred to, says, "Let the Church stand on her own merits, and she has nothing to dread. I have no fear of error, if error were left to itself; but I have great fear of persecution."

CHAPTER XIX.

Form of Church Government among Episcopalians.—Discipline. Improvements in their ecclesiastical polity. Comparatively healthy and prosperous state of their churches. Happy effects of religious equality on the country, on ministers, and on religion, in obviating jealousy, party feeling, and isolation. Fraternity of ministers and people of different sections of the universal church as a consequence. General harmony of operation. Respect and kindness manifested by American people generally towards ministers of religion. Instances in which especially exemplified. Voluntary liberality in support of religious institutions. Number and diversity of religious sects. Its influence for good rather than for evil. Prevalence of religion, and number of places of religious worship. Architecture and internal arrangements of religious edifices. Especial respect paid to the Sabbath in the Northern and Middle States.

As may be supposed from the statements of the previous chapter, the Episcopalian churches of America are developing themselves very differently from those of Europe. The European churches had an historical basis; they sprang out of certain conditions of old European society, which conditions have no counterpart in America. The consequence is, that all those churches whose framework has been borrowed from the old world, are being rapidly modified by the new circumstances with which they are environed. The Church system of Europe is a system which an American cannot comprehend. It is foreign to all his habits and to all his tastes.

Even the Roman Church is growing powerless in the United States. The idea of a church with a supreme dignitary in a distant country is to an American, especially if a native, altogether preposterous.

Thus the Episcopalians, who though not the most numerous body in America are highly respectable, are far less wedded to conventional forms and distinctions than in England and her colonies. At the same time they are destitute of the offices and dignities inseparable from a State Establishment, although they maintain their distinctive character as a religious community, having bishops, rectors, and curates.

Dr. Russell, in his "History of Modern Europe," observes that a bishop during the first and second centuries was only a

president in a council of Presbyters at the head of one christian assembly; and whenever the episcopal chair became vacant, a new president was chosen from among the Presbyters by the suffrage of the whole congregation. It is similar in the United States.

A diocese practically consists of all the Episcopalians in a given State, organized upon a prescribed plan as an ecclesiastical commonwealth, of which the bishop is the president, and by which he is supported. Generally, however, he is elected by a majority of the standing committee of all the dioceses of the United States.

While this highly respectable denomination have not scrupled very considerably to alter and amend the Prayer-book,—disburdening the Liturgy of all the appendages that were made to it in the reign of Charles II.,—and to deviate from other prescribed forms of the Anglican Church, they sometimes administer baptism by immersion both to children and to adults.

In one Episcopal church in Kentucky, the font is in the shape of a large bath, six or seven feet in length. Several adult persons in Philadelphia have been baptized by Episcopal clergymen in the Schuylkill.

While the Episcopal establishments and ministry are supported like those of other denominations, (except in the State of New York, where landed property is possessed, guaranteed before the settlement of the Constitution,) viz., by funded endowments, by pew rents, by voluntary contributions in general, and by matrimonial fees,* their views on the subject of a connection between Church and State are similar. "I cannot think," says the Rev. Mr. Caswell, "that any civil legislation would add in the slightest degree to the weight of the American canons. On the contrary, it would probably tend to bring them into discateem among the Episcopalians."

The kings and ecclesiastics of Europe, for so many centuries, had held undisputed sway over the mind and conscience, that the people generally seemed to regard them as inheriting the authority not only to control their property, but also to mould their civil and religious opinions. To call in question this authority was considered a most flagrant act of rebellion; and

* This is a very considerable source of emolument; the presents made on such occasions amount to a very considerable sum per annum.

he who dared to do it was punished for his temerity either by death or banishment.

In the United States, things were soon managed differently. It is the almost uniform conviction of the people on this side the Atlantic, that the church is competent to take care of itself; that legislative interference would be a positive injury; and that civil government will sooner need the protection of religion than religion require the support of the State. Perfectly distinct in themselves, it is found that they both accomplish their respective objects most effectually by pursuing them in their distinct and separate capacity. American Episcopalians, we have already shown, are generally satisfied, that to set up an Established church in America would be the utmost folly;—that while defects in the American system are freely admitted, it can hardly be doubted that the voluntary system will finally prevail, which on the whole is the best both for clergy and people.*

To the same effect is the testimony of another high authority.† "Although I think that the experience of the United States does not as yet enable them to decide on either side the argument between the established and voluntary systems in religion, yet take the towns by themselves, and I think the voluntary system appears fully adequate to satisfy all religious exigencies."

M. De Tocqueville, who visited the United States, and saw the good effect of the voluntary principle, says that he was struck with the intimate connection between religion and liberty. He interrogated on the subject Catholic and Protestant ministers. "All," he adds, "attribute mainly to the entire separation of Church and State the peaceful empire which religion exercises among them." "I do not fear to affirm," he continues, "that during my residence in America I never met with a man, ecclesiastical or layman, who was not agreed on this point."

Mere human authority, however venerable in Europe, has here lost its *prestige*. Stereotyped orthodoxy is in all departments at a discount. Enquiry cannot be frowned down or silenced, for the million stand foot to foot with the unit, and demand discussion, proofs, reasons. Treat men like men, and they reason like men; treat them like beasts, and they sink into

* American Church by an Episcopalian.
† Earl of Carlisle.

brute obstinacy; honour them as free citizens, and they cultivate free and generous thought.

Since, then, the people are not here taught to believe that free enquiry and manly remonstrance are sedition,—are not subject to a clerical despotism, grounded upon the assumed absolute divine right of the clergy to be the only authorised interpreters of the Divine Word,—but have the right to doubt freely and discuss openly all religious questions, without damage to their social position and rights;—since free trade in thought and speech is as popular as free trade in the markets of the world, it is not wonderful that there should sometimes appear excesses in the direction of freedom. In many instances, doubtless, there is an abuse of human powers,—the want of balance in their exercise, and the perversion of liberty into licentiousness; but to repress even the excesses of the human mind by authority, or even to check it by harshness, or by imprecations, or by fulminations of Divine wrath, would only disgrace the religion of light and love, and provoke the bitter scorn of the unbeliever. Religious liberty even to equality has in no case, as was prophesied, opened the floodgates of error and irreligion.

Governments, it is repeated, cannot commit mistakes more injurious than when they attempt to regulate the religion of a people; while direct interference in ecclesiastical matters by the civil powers of the State inevitably produces sanguinary results in a rude, and inextricable confusion in a civilized, community. Attempts to procure uniformity of religious belief and action have, as is witnessed by the dark dismal uniformity of the Church of Rome, sunk whole nations into apathy. The experiment has been tried from the time of Constantine, and ecclesiastical history has long since determined its results. The attempt has not only occasioned anarchy, confusion, and apathy, but it is engraven in characters of blood. Human power, in the enforcement of its laws, may make men hypocrites, but it cannot make them believers; it may change the conduct, and should be invoked to correct the grosser immoralities, but it cannot reach nor change the heart. If the heart be right with God it will be right with man; and such is the true and solid basis whereupon governments should repose. And this lesson, which other and older nations have been so slow to learn, America, to her honour, has exemplified from her earliest infancy. Had such a principle prevailed in France she would

have been preserved from revolution; in Ireland, she had never weltered in her blood. Kings should know that if they are to reign at all it must be in the hearts of the people. Unity of opinion, perhaps, abstractedly considered, is neither desirable nor a good. If the centre be error, its results will be such as will inevitably be deplored. If, however, the centre be truth, its circle cannot be too widely extended.

Roman Catholics have taunted Protestants with being broken up into sects, and have appealed to the unity of their church as a proof of its superiority; but there is implanted in man, for wise purposes, a spirit of emulation, by which alone astonishing results have been accomplished; and the denominational differences which prevail among Dissenters are productive, perhaps, of infinitely more good than evil. The Romish Church, in its boasted unity, it has been said, may be compared to a stagnant pool covered over with weeds and scum, and sending out a baleful miasma; while the Protestant body resembles a rippling brook, passing over pebbles of party-coloured hues, with scarcely one yard of its course resembling another, but diffusing health and gladness as it rolls along.

Religious liberty and equality in America has in no case, as was so confidently predicted, opened the floodgates of error and irreligion. Freedom of thought, and speech, and action, so far from having tended to promote scepticism and infidelity, are found to have operated against error in general.

The American people, especially those residing in the country, are in the habit of hearing a great variety of preachers, who agree with each other on certain points, and disagree on others. The doctrines on which they agree are generally believed, while those on which they disagree are often disputed or denied. Hence it is that amidst much error and confusion orthodox views are generally held on the doctrines of the Trinity, the inspiration of the Scriptures, the atonement of the Saviour, and a state of reward and punishment hereafter. As, moreover, the Americans are a nation of travellers, in the most remote districts there are some who have enjoyed a religious education, and are willing to communicate such information as they are able to bestow. Only a small portion of the population, therefore, can be charged with gross heresy.

In regard to doctrine, indeed, the great majority of the American people are orthodox. This is most emphatically the case, and affords a strong evidence that the Bible alone is sufficient

to impart a knowledge of all truth necessary to salvation. It is a fact which even a High Churchman can contemplate with pleasure, that Episcopalians, Congregationalists, the Dutch Reformed, the German Reformed, the Lutherans, the Methodists, the Moravians, the Presbyterians, and most of the Baptists and Quakers, agree in maintaining nearly all the truths contained in the Apostles' Creed, the Nicene Creed, and the Thirty-nine Articles. Among these denominations is found almost the whole religious energy of the country; and from these the great philanthropic institutions of America derive their prosperity and vigour.*

To the same effect is the statement of Miss Bremer, in her "Homes of the New World." "All christian sects acknowledge, after all, the same God, the same divine Mediator and Teacher, the same duty, the same love, the same eternal hope."

The various churches are various families, who having gone forth from the same parent are advancing towards the eternal mansions in the house of the eternal Father. It was the statement of a British officer in travelling through Pennsylvania many years since, "Although there are so many sects, and such a difference of opinion in this province, it is surprising what harmony subsists among them. They consider themselves children of the same Father, and live like brethren, because they have the liberty of thinking like men. To this pleasing harmony is to be attributed the rapid and flourishing state of Pennsylvania above all the other provinces."† Every one has his separate mission to accomplish in the kingdom of mind. God has given different gifts of understanding, and thence arise different forms of comprehension and expression of truth. By this means truth, in its many sidedness, is a gainer, and the full discussion even of the highest subjects which takes place in the different churches in this country, as well as in the pages of their different organs,‡ is of infinite importance for the development of the religious mind of the people. Besides, these controversies and conflicting declarations on points of

* "The American Church," by the Rev. Mr. Caswell. Mr. Caswell adds, "The Baptist sects, taken collectively, constitute the prevailing denomination in the States."

† Captain Abury in 1791.

‡ Every one of the most considerable of the christian sects has its own publications, which diffuse its own doctrines, as well as the reports and transactions of its own body.

religious difference must tend to an increasingly clear knowledge of the essential points of resemblance in all christian communities,—to the knowledge of the positive in Christianity,—and must prepare the way by degrees for a church universal in character, and with oneness of view even in externals.

An American bishop, of the Episcopal church, recently in the course of the visitation of his diocese, on arriving at ——, found that no notice of his appointment had been received, and no preparation consequently made for holding the accustomed services. Being in some difficulty what to do, he was waited on by the Presbyterian minister of the place, informing him that their presbytery were in session, and would be happy to have him perform the church service and preach for them in the evening. The bishop did so, preaching from Acts xvii. 30, 31.*

The Bible Society especially, as in England, while protecting divine truth from the attacks of Rome and Infidelity, affords a rallying point for Protestants of all denominations.

"Indifference," says the Earl of Carlisle, "cannot be laid to the charge of the people of the United States. Probably religious extremes are pushed further than elsewhere. There certainly is a breadth and universality of religious liberty which I do not regard without some degree of envy."†

Under the state of things thus existing other advantages accrue. While some of the Episcopal clergy who are strong in their assertion of the apostolical succession may decline friendly ecclesiastical intercourse with ministers of other bodies, there are others who recognise all who hold evangelical views, and whose credentials are visible in their character, capacity, and usefulness as ministers and members of Christ's church. These cheerfully connect themselves with some of the great societies formed among other churches; in short, discover their sympathy with their fellow-christians in every way that the canons of their church will allow.

There is little of that pride of ecclesiastical station which belongs to aristocratic families in England and her colonies, always showing how corroding to the best impulses of the heart, and to the dictates of common sense, are those strong

* New York Guardian.
† Earl of Carlisle's Lecture on America.

prejudices, which, early implanted, petrify themselves into the character in the course of years. The grand aspect in which Protestant Christianity appears to men in general in the New World is, as a teacher of equality;—"One is your master, even Christ; and all ye are brethren."

As a consequence, that sacerdotal mien and cold reserve which it is the unchristian and mistaken policy of many of the clergy of the Established Church of England and her colonies to adopt towards those who maintain their right to differ from them is here unknown; nor is there ever displayed any fierce bigotry or prescriptive intolerance. Instead of appearing among the people and ministers of other societies in the stiffness of professional hauteur and contempt, the ministers of the Episcopal church are, like others of their ministerial brethren with whom they differ on minor points of theology and discipline, at all times accessible and friendly. No factitious grandeur encompasses them; no supercilious airs mark their deportment. Ministers of all denominations meet together on the same platforms, preach in the same pulpits, and sit at the same committee-boards as equals.

There are no conventional distinctions; nor is there any affectation of singularity or superiority. Precedence is usually awarded by courtesy to seniority, talent, usefulness, and character, irrespective of denominational peculiarity, but is not claimed by any as a right. The same equitable spirit pervades the councils of the different States, as well as of the Congress. Nowhere is a minister of the Gospel degraded and *tabooed* because he has the honesty and the manliness to maintain independency of thought and action.

And this religious freedom and equality is productive of another and a still more important advantage. All religious denominations being on an equal footing with respect to the Government, there is no room for jealousy or envy; ecclesiastical injustice and its consequences are unknown; so that religious equality has both secured the peace of the community, and essentially promoted the interests of truth and piety.*

The Rev. John Howard Hinton, A.M., author of a well-known History of the United States, has published a volume

* "Since the revolution," says an American author, "by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there has been no disputing among religious sects. They all agree to differ."

under the title of "The Test of Experience," in which he has presented a masterly argument for the voluntary principle in matters of religion. The "test of experience" is in this, as in all other things, the best of tests, and the religious institutions of the United States can well bear its application. One of the most noticeable results of the non-interference of the State is pointed out in the following passage:—"To travellers in the United States, no fact has been more immediately or more powerfully striking than the total absence of religious rivalry. Amidst such a multitude of sects, an inhabitant of the Old World naturally, and almost instinctively, looks for one that sets up exclusive pretensions and possesses an actual predominance. But he finds nothing of the kind. Neither Presbyterianism, nor Prelacy, nor any other form of Ecclesiasticism, makes the slightest effort to lift its head above its fellows. And with the resignation of exclusive pretensions, the entire ecclesiastical strife has ceased, and the din of angry war has been hushed; and here, at length, the voluntary principle is able to exhibit itself in its true colours, as a lover of peace and the author of concord. It is busied no longer with the arguing of disputed claims, but throws its whole energy into free and combined operations for the extension of Christianity. The general religious energy embodies itself in a thousand forms; but while there is before the church a vast field to which the activities of all are scarcely equal, there is, also, 'a fair field and no favour,'—a field in which all have the same advantages, and in which each is sure to find rewards proportionate to its wisdom and its zeal. This inestimable benefit of religious peace is clearly due to the voluntary principle."

Familiar and affable to all, Episcopalians in America stand among the people members of the great human brotherhood, strictly identified with the common species whose interests and characters they unite with christians of other sections of the great christian church in efforts to elevate and improve. Their churches and congregations, like those of all others, are formed, and embodied, and supported by themselves. In a word, good men of all christian denominations in America feel themselves, and act more generally upon the conviction than in any other christian country, that "they are all one in Christ Jesus." It is the nature of true religion to bind heart to heart. True, unbounded, disinterested benevolence is its genius. Into this peaceful, happy, and natural state of things do men subside

when the great causes of jealousy and animosity are obviated or removed.

The following is the testimony borne to the character and usefulness of ministers of the gospel generally by the late celebrated Daniel Webster, in his speech in Congress in the Girard case:—

"I take it upon myself to say, that in no country in the world, upon either continent, can there be found a body of ministers of the Gospel who perform so much service to man, in such a full spirit of self-denial, under so little encouragement from Government of any kind, and under circumstances always much straitened and often distressed, as the ministers of the Gospel in the United States, of all denominations.

"They form no part of any established order of religion; they constitute no hierarchy; they enjoy no peculiar privileges—in some of the States they are even shut out from all participation in the political rights and privileges enjoyed by their fellow-citizens; they enjoy no tithes—no public provision of any kind. And except here and there, in large cities, where a wealthy individual occasionally makes a donation for the support of public worship, what have they to depend upon? They have to depend entirely on the voluntary contributions of those who hear them.

"And this body of clergymen has shown, to the honour of their country, and to the astonishment of the hierarchies of the Old World, that it is practicable in free governments, to raise and sustain a body of clergymen—which, for devotedness to their sacred calling, for purity of life and character, for learning, intelligence, piety, and that wisdom which cometh from above, is inferior to none, and superior to most others—by voluntary contributions alone.

"I hope that our learned men have done something for the honour of our literature abroad. I hope that the courts of justice and members of the bar in this country, have done something to elevate the character of the profession of the law—I hope that the discussions above—in Congress—have done something to ameliorate the condition of the human race, to secure and extend the great charter of human rights, and to strengthen and advance the great principles of human liberty. But I contend that no literary efforts, no adjudication, no constitutional discussions, nothing that has been done or said in favour of the great interests of universal man, has done this

country more credit at home and abroad, than the establishment of our body of clergymen, their support by voluntary contributions, and the general excellence of their character, their piety and learning.

"The great truth has been thus proclaimed and proved,—a truth which I believe will, in time to come, shake all the hierarchies of Europe—that the voluntary support of such a ministry, under free institutions, is a practicable idea."

While this testimony is borne to the character and deportment of consistent and devoted ministers of the Gospel in America, the conduct of the people generally towards such ministers must not be omitted.

Clergymen of all denominations are here treated with great consideration and respect. Nor does this consideration and respect include merely verbal expressions of civility and courtesy. "In travelling through Ohio," says the Episcopal clergyman so often quoted, "it has several times happened that after spending a night at an inn, and having taken supper and breakfast, the landlord has refused to accept any payment on hearing that I was a clergyman. For the same reason, a drayman whom I once engaged to remove my furniture from one house to another, resisted all my efforts to induce him to receive compensation."

There are captains of steamboats who will sometimes carry clergymen a great distance for half price, or without any charge. Quite recently, a bishop was conveyed on board a steamboat without cost from New Orleans to St. Louis, a voyage of more than 1,000 miles. Medical men also prescribe for ministers of all denominations and their families gratuitously; and lawyers seldom charge the clergy for their services. These are common practices towards ministers of all denominations by the American people, and are honourable alike to the feelings of their hearts and the liberality of their sentiments.

The same generosity is manifested towards all persons who are known to devote their time and talents to benevolent objects of whatever kind. It is said, that Miss Dorothea Dix—the Caroline Fry of America—is privileged to travel from the utmost extremities of the country entirely free of charge. No proprietor, captain of steamboat, or director of railroad car, would think of her paying the customary fare.

As to the voluntary liberality manifested in the support of religion generally, "I have been informed," continues the

gentleman just quoted, "that many of the wealthiest merchants habitually devote a tenth part of their incomes, and sometimes much more, to religious purposes. The annual assessments on pews are often as high as from two to two hundred dollars, which all pay cheerfully. And there are few of any class who do not give their support to some mode of worship; and this they do, not grudgingly, but of a cheerful mind,—not as a tax extorted and reluctantly paid, but as a free-will offering to Him from whom they derive their life, and breath, and all things."

The voluntary contributions of the people of the United States to religious and benevolent institutions, as well as for the support of ministers, are among the most gratifying evidences of their moral enlightenment. The receipts of nineteen of the great christian organisations for the year ending April last, (1856), were 100,849,823 dollars, 48 cents; being an increase of 20,794,887 dollars upon the receipts of the previous year. The "New York Christian Advocate" says, "There are at least 400,000 Sabbath school papers issued monthly by the Sunday school press of the United States, amounting to 4,800,000 dollars."

The different denominations, unitedly, have 70,000,000 of dollars invested in church property; 20,000,000 are annually raised for the support of ordinances at home; and 4,000,000 for the spread of the gospel abroad.

It may be supposed from what has been already intimated, that America is more remarkable than any other country for her diversity of religious sects.

There are, it is said, upwards of sixty different communions; but, as has been stated above, their difference is not so much in doctrine as in discipline and *formulæ*. The principal are Congregationalists, Baptists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Wesleyans. The Congregationalists, or Independents, obtained an early prevalence in New England, originated by the Puritans. The Presbyterians were settled in one or two of the middle States, about the year 1620. The Episcopalians established themselves in Virginia, and in some of the older States, between the years 1607 and 1609. Maryland was settled by Roman Catholics in 1634; and Pennsylvania by the Society of Friends in 1681. The Swedes and Finns introduced Lutheranism into Delaware and New Jersey in 1627; while the Baptists, who were among the foremost in their expatriation to the New World, and are now probably the most numerous, are spread over almost every part

of the Union. They had their origin, as is well known, in the North Eastern States, in the labours of Roger Williams, in Rhode Island; while the Swedes and Germans, in 1683, followers of Simon Menno, established themselves on the Delaware, on the Hudson, and the Mohawk.

Wesleyanism was introduced into America in 1714 and 1752, by emigrants from Ireland, who settled in Massachusetts, Virginia, Long Island, New Jersey, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, the principal of whom were the Tennent family.

In 1765, Philip Emery and Captain Webb began to preach in Long Island and some other parts of the country. The first regular preachers sent from England, were Messrs. Boardman and Pilmore, in 1769. The first conference was held in Philadelphia. The Wesleyan Methodists are now, next to the Baptists, the most numerous body of christians in the United States.

The voluntary system has thus powerfully proved its efficiency. It has been, in all respects, productive of such extraordinary results that its superiority to the system of State endowments amounts to a practical demonstration. The holy fire kindled in Britain, and borne across the Atlantic to its shores, is thus diffusing itself with astonishing rapidity over this mighty continent; her more equable and rational laws animating the churches there to a vigour and a speed in the race of christian benevolence and love, that may well excite the apprehensions of the parent country lest they pass them on the road and leave them far behind.

Thus, while in the commercial world all is noise and activity; while every day records some mighty undertaking—some unparalleled results; so in the religious world, enterprise and constant effort are daily leading to the founding of some of the noblest institutions which ever elevated or blessed mankind.

It has been before noticed, incidentally, that churches and chapels are numerous in America. They also, for the most part, in the Eastern and Middle States, possess considerable architectural pretensions. The more ancient of the Congregational chapels, both of the Independents and Baptists, resemble the village churches in England, being usually large square buildings, with square windows; the structure, at its front gable, surmounted by a tower and bell; but in all cases fitted up with more convenience. The more recently erected buildings, though

in exterior appearance much in the same style, are furnished and arranged with a much greater regard to comfort; some are elegantly furnished, and generally with large platforms instead of pulpits. Mr. Chambers, in his late tour in America, says, "I entered a church of respectable appearance in Albany, which I found belonged to the Baptist connection. The church, which was filled with an exceedingly well-dressed and attentive congregation, was fitted up with every regard to taste and comfort, —strikingly characteristic of places of worship in the United States. Every traveller remarks the neatness of American churches. They resemble neither the venerable parish churches in England, with their old family oak pews, antique monuments, and troops of charity children; nor the parish churches of Scotland, with their plain deal seats, damp earthen floors, and unmelodious precentors. All of them, of whatever communion I chanced to attend, were carpetted over like a drawing-room; the pews, of finely polished or painted wood, were spacious and cushioned; the windows furnished with venetian blinds to moderate the glare of sunshine; and the pulpit low, and without sounding board, consisted of a kind of enclosed platform, which was provided with a handsome sofa for a seat. It may also be noticed that the pews are generally provided with light fans, which the ladies employ during warm weather. I never saw any functionary acting in the capacity of a clerk or precentor.

"The singing is generally led by an organ and choir in the gallery opposite the pulpit. Not the least remarkable peculiarity in the arrangements is the voluntary association of a number of young ladies and gentlemen to compose the choir. In some fashionable churches there are paid singers; but throughout the country generally the members of the choirs belong to the best families and act gratuitously. In one place which I visited, the leader of the church choir was the principal medical man in the town. Facts of this kind are too pleasing to be overlooked."

Comparatively few of the workmen in England are members of christian churches. Such churches are generally composed of the middle classes; the masses, those at least living in the large manufacturing and commercial cities and provincial towns, are generally Socialists, Chartists, or those who profess to be connected with the churches established by law, and who seldom or never enter them. In the United States there are

very few comparatively who are not connected with some religious society and profess some religious creed. Irreligion or neutrality is disreputable and injurious to the character and temporal interests of the parties.

However discordant the elements, moral and religious, that the tide of emigration is daily pouring upon her shores, by some mysterious process such emigrants, especially the Irish, seem almost instantly to become amalgamated with the general mass, and influenced by their general habits and opinions.

In America, as in England, Christianity being recognised as the law of the land, the sittings of Congress, and of all the State Legislatures, are regularly suspended on the Sunday. The Courts of Justice, the Custom-House, the Banks, and the Land Offices, are closed on that day, as well as all private offices, shops, and stores.

The Post-office is the only exception to this rule, and the question as to the duty of closing this also has become the subject of warm discussion, both out of doors and in Congress.

There is no part of the world, not even any part of England, where the Sabbath is more strictly regarded than in the Middle and North Eastern States of America. As an evidence of the public sentiment with respect to it, more than thirty railroads do not run their cars on the Sabbath. Recently, the three principal lines of railroad in New York, the Central, the Erie, and the Hudson river, have discontinued the Sunday passenger trains. The principal lines of steamboats have for some time found it to their interest to discontinue their Sunday trips, and the railroad companies have now come to the same wise conclusion.

In no part of the civilised world can the sentiment of Horace, though in a more elevated sense than that in which it was conceived, be more properly applied:—

> "Festus in pratis vacat otiose
> Cum bove pagus."

> "The leisure village jocund in the fields,
> Keeps holiday together with the steer
> Loosened from toil."

Let it not be supposed that the author intends to convey the impression by the statements he has just given, that true religion predominates in the United States, or that ignorance and sin have been totally expelled by the light and influence of truth. Darkness and wickedness still inherit the land, from the summit

of the Alleghanies to the far off Pacific,—from the frozen lake to the Southern Gulf. And errorists and unbelievers are found throughout this whole extent, of every possible sect and school, from the mildest form of heresy to the bleakest and dreariest negations of Atheism. This, alas, is as yet true of all nations on the face of the earth! But the candid reader, who attentively considers the foregoing account, will not hesitate to admit that the United States of America already take rank among the most advanced peoples in the race of civilisation and religion.

CHAPTER XX.

SEC. I. CENTRAL CONNECTICUT CITIES.—Boston. Origin of the name. Its geographical situation and commercial importance. Harbour, shipping, suburbs, population. Literary and scientific institutions. Public buildings. Harvard university. Newton theological institution. Cemetery. Seminary for training female teachers. Common schools. Number of places of religious worship. Particular circumstances for which Boston is celebrated in history. Prevalence of religion. Principal religious denominations. Architecture of public edifices. Public places of resort. Boston common. Mt. Auburn cemetery, &c.

SEC. II. Rhode Island. Situation and extent. Salubrious climate. Chief towns. Public buildings. Benevolent institutions. Population. Face of the country. Rural attractions. Origin of cotton cultivation and manufacture. State when founded. Roger Williams. His history. Origin and nature of the government. Brown university. Origin, progress, and present state. President Wayland.

SECTION I.

Boston, originally Shawmut or Tri-mountain, was called Boston from Boston in Lincolnshire, of which town many of the Pilgrim Fathers are supposed to have been natives. By railroad it is thirty-seven miles from Plymouth, the landing-place of the Pilgrims, and two hundred and thirty-six miles from New York. The fare from the latter town is five dollars, and the rate of travelling twenty-five miles an hour, *en route* through New Haven, Hertford, Springfield, and Worcester; passing over a populous country, and through the State of Connecticut, along the valley of the Connecticut River. It is the capital of the State of Massachusetts, which State is divided into fourteen counties, and contains three hundred and three towns. Some of these towns are important as marts of manufactures and commerce, and are distinguished for their architectural beauty and for the scenery around.

Boston is the metropolis or principal town in New England; and New England is a portion of the Union that includes the States of Maine and New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

Boston principally occupies the peninsula of the Bay of Massachusetts, a peninsula which is nearly three miles in length, with an average breadth of one mile, and is distinguished by triple hills. Like Venice, though not actually built on the sea,

it is also surrounded by broad, deep waters, except at a narrow point at the western extremity of the bay at the mouth of the Charles River, which is connected with the surrounding country by curiously-constructed artificial avenues or bridges, and railroad viaducts; and from the first of these peculiarities as to situation the town is said to have derived its original designation.

The Harbour is a magnificent basin, nearly encircled by a beautiful country rising in gentle acclivities of from fifty to one hundred and ten feet above the sea. From its neatness, its irregularity, and its beautiful suburban villas, it might be taken for one of our English sea-ports. Some of the streets are narrow and circuitous, but others (among which is Washington Street, extending through the city) are not much inferior to the best in our English provincial towns; many of them have also broad side-way pavements of granite, and are thronged with passengers. For many miles around the prospect extends over as fair a land as ever rejoiced the heart of man: mountain and valley, forest and water, city and solitude, grouped together or dispersed in forms of almost ideal beauty; these, with the numerous islands which dot the harbour, present a highly commanding and picturesque appearance from the sea, as also from Dorchester Heights and Mount Washington.

The town may be said to be almost entirely English, both in its aspect and character. Not rectangular, as is usual in America,—not with rows of trees shading the side-walks—it bears no similarity to Philadelphia and Washington, the streets and buildings there resembling a chess-board;—but its plan is irregular, and its streets broad and narrow, straight, crooked, and diverging. So little is there of what is foreign and novel, either in the town or in the manners and customs of the inhabitants, that an Englishman at times can hardly persuade himself that he is in the New World, or at all beyond the precincts of his native land.

This town is distinguished both as the literary and the commercial emporium of New England, and the manufacturing centre of almost the entire continent. It is also the centre of the railroad system; and, including South Boston, which does not stand upon the peninsula, is the largest *town* in the whole of the United States, extending over nearly three square miles. Boston is not in reality a city; and there is not a city, in the true meaning of the term, in all New England, as no one town,

of whatever magnitude,—Providence in Rhode Island excepted, —contains a Mayor, Aldermen, and the other municipal officers which form the necessary adjuncts of a Corporation.

The shipping of Boston amounts to more than one-eighth of the whole tonnage of the United States. Its trade extends to all parts of the world, and it is the fourth in rank among the mercantile cities of the Union. Situated at the most favourable point of the eastern coast for trade with England, and the nearest to the shores of the Old World, it is said to possess advantages for foreign as well as coasting trade over every other American port.* Its navy yard, called the United States Navy Yard and Dry Dock, is without a rival in the country. The former is of great extent, and contains three large sheds for ship-building, one of which is occupied by the ship *Virginia*, which has been on the stocks for more than twenty years.

The population is about 150,000, but with its environs, including Cambridge and South East Boston, it is estimated at about 300,000. The whole district is supposed to contain half a million of inhabitants. Boston is celebrated, among other distinguishing characteristics of eminence, for the number and elegance of its public buildings, and its literary and philanthropic institutions. Altogether there are about fifty churches and other public edifices deserving of notice. Among these are the State House, the State Prison, the New Market House, Fremont House, the King's Chapel, the Massachusetts General Hospital, the Institution for the education of the Blind, the New Custom House, and Faneuil Hall.

The last-named building, as is generally known, is celebrated for the meetings held within its walls during the struggles for independence. It is on this account greatly venerated by the whole American people, and is styled the cradle of liberty. Scarcely less celebrated has it more recently become for the assemblage of brave men who attempted the rescue of Burns, the first victim of the fugitive slave law, and for the resolutions there passed against that iniquitous statute. The State House is a handsome building, occupying the summit of Beacon Hill, an eminence in the midst of the town, from the cupola or dome of which a most beautiful panoramic view is commanded, both of the whole town and of the surrounding

* According to the calculations of Lieut Maury, the distance from Boston to Liverpool is 2,880 miles, 160 miles nearer than from New York.

country, as far as Plymouth, thirty miles distant along the coast, where the Pilgrim Fathers first knelt to worship beneath the hoary forest trees. It is a massive square building, with a piazza of arches surmounted by a range of Corinthian columns.

Quincy Market is a splendid edifice of granite, and is the most clean, commodious, and best supplied of any market in the United States. The abundant supply of wild fowl, together with poultry of all kinds, successively exhibited here, is astonishing to a foreigner.

The King's Chapel was erected just before the revolution, it was the only place, for a series of years, in all the North Eastern States, in which the doctrines of the Church of England were preached or its common prayer-book used.

Fremont House, or Hotel, is a very elegant building, as is also the whole pile of edifices of which the magnificent street is formed of which this constitutes a part, being built of granite, and from three to four stories high.

The New Custom House is also a handsome and commodious building. It is of the Doric order, with three porticos of fluted columns each approached by fourteen steps, all of massive granite.

Charleston is a suburb of Boston, and is connected with it by three bridges. The centre of the town is occupied by Bunker's Hill, celebrated for the battle fought on it during the revolutionary war, and which is commemorated by a monument, a plain granite shaft, two hundred and twenty feet high and fifty feet square at the base. The elevation on which it stands is encircled by a neat iron railing, and intersected by tastefully arranged walks and promenades. From this height, also, a most magnificent view is presented of the surrounding country; the horizon, in a particular state of the atmosphere, being incredibly extended. Plymouth, the landing-place of the Pilgrim Fathers, is distinctly visible.

Many houses here, as in South East Boston, are of granite, or rather, of sennite; but brick is the prevailing material. The streets, though narrow, and often irregular, exhibit much finish and cleanliness.

Cambridge is united to Boston by two bridges, and may be said, like Charleston, to form a constituent part of the town. The broad winding roads, and the beautiful lawns and pleasure-grounds, with their vast forest trees embosoming the beautiful

villas scattered over the landscape, give to this portion of the town an appearance preeminently English. Cambridge is the location of Harvard University, already noted; the oldest, richest, and most celebrated literary institution in the country, being founded in the year 1636. Here, also, is an Athenæum, a very superior institution, unrivalled by any in America; the Mercantile Literary Association; the Lowell Institute, for the advancement of art, science, and religion; and an Asylum for the Insane and Blind, all most ably conducted.

Boston gave birth to Benjamin Franklin, the hero of peace, and one of the quiet benefactors of the human race. He was the third man in the great triumvirate—Fox, Penn, and Franklin—the first man in the battle of the press, and for freedom of thought in America, and for American independence. Here the revolution commenced. Its ports were closed in 1774, by order of the British Government, and a garrison placed in a position within it to defend the town. It was, in consequence, besieged by the American army under General Washington, who finally compelled the English to abandon it.

Boston was not only the cradle of civil liberty, but also the source of those great schemes of elementary education that have extended over the whole Union; whilst, in almost everything tending to general improvement, her people have almost invariably taken the lead.

Among the picturesque and beautiful rural attractions of Boston, and the numerous watering-places and other charming places of resort in the suburbs, are Mount Auburn Cemetery, near Harvard University (the *Pere la Chaise* of America), and the Boston Common.

The former contains upwards of one hundred acres of land, of a beautiful undulating surface;—hills and valleys of great picturesque effect, as if artificially designed; diversified with patches of water, trees and shrubs, dells and glens; and the whole intersected with gravel walks, and ornamented by the trees characteristic of the neighbourhood. These trees are mostly elms, the most common tree in Massachusetts; beautiful from their wide-spreading palm-like crowns and ponderous trunks,—their pliant branches, bending gracefully over the greensward,—the pendant nests of the oriole, swinging beneath them in the wind. Among the most novel and beautiful shrubs and flowers that attract the eye in this magnificent cemetery, and amid these beautiful garden graves of the dead, are the Linnea borealis, the

hibiscus *(rosa sinensis)*, the arborescent euphorbia, tilandsia, the amias, the ligar, and scarlet belladonna lily; some beautiful vaccinium, as well as monotropa, called the Indian pipes, with others of unusual splendour, many of them common to the gardens and pleasure grounds of England.

Among the tombs that command the especial interest of the casual visitor, are those of Mrs. Hannah Adams, the wife of one of the ablest statesmen and Presidents of the Union; and Dr. Spurzheim, the phrenologist; Judge Storey, the distinguished jurist; and the celebrated Dr. Channing. While, more recently, the remains of Margaret Fuller Ossoli have been there deposited, or, at least, a marble monument has been erected to her memory and that of her husband and child.

The Common, in the summer season, is a delightful spot, situate at the extremity of Fremont Street, which runs parallel with Washington Street, and is a place of great resort, especially to the youthful part of the population. As a promenade, it is to the Bostonians in general, what St. James's and Regent's Parks are to the populace of London; and is scarcely less attractive in native and artificial convenience and beauty. It consists of about fifty acres of land, containing in its centre a beautiful and extended reservoir or lake; this reservoir is supplied from what is now called Cochituate Lake, which drains a surface of nearly twelve thousand acres of the surrounding country. It is nearly surrounded by streets or terraces of elegant houses, occupied by the most wealthy of the citizens, and the beautiful suburbs, studded with numerous country seats and well cultivated farms, give an additional charm to this source of rural recreation. Some of the vast trees that ornament these charming haunts of the country-loving citizen, are supposed to be one hundred years of age.

Boston and its neighbourhood derives additional interest to the passing stranger, from the many illustrations of history it presents in the surrounding memorials of the great revolutionary struggle. This metropolis of the North being, as already intimated, the cradle of education and of general enlightenment in the New World, as well as of liberty, is often designated the American Athens. Public schools are numerous, and may be said to be models of what such institutions should be; the respectable portion of the population, generally, taking an interest in them. At West Newton, near to Boston, is a seminary for female teachers, established by Horace Mann, and

also a drawing school, or school of design for girls. "Young women, at one or both of these admirable institutions, learn Latin, Greek, Mathematics, Algebra, and the Physical Sciences; and, it is said, evince the greatest facility in acquiring knowledge of these subjects, which have been considered so difficult, if not incomprehensible to the female intellect."*

Nor is it merely for educational purposes that the spirit of the New World is preparing woman for a freer development of her being, and a wider sphere of activity; as already shown, it opens to her free paths in arts and manufactures. This is the object of the drawing school, as will be hereafter described. Literary and Philanthropic societies, as also private as well as public schools, are perhaps more numerous and more efficient here than in any other town, or city, or district of the Union. Literature, music, and the fine arts are therefore more cultivated and better appreciated, and the inhabitants are more refined. While it is somewhat remarkable as a fact, suggestive both of the social state and prudential character of the people of New England in general, that the State of Massachusetts contains fourteen hundred and six physicians or medical men, or one to every seven hundred and seven of the inhabitants. The town and whole district of Massachusetts it may be added, indeed the whole North-Eastern States, are distinguished for order, cleanliness, regularity, and social arrangements in general, giving evidence, from age to age, of the characteristics of their high Puritan lineage. "The tone of society here," says Mr. Dickens, "is one of perfect politeness, courtesy, and good breeding. The ladies are unquestionably very beautiful; their education is much the same as with us."

Religion has strongly entrenched itself in this celebrated town. Boston contains at the present time upwards of forty large and, for the most part, elegant places of worship, and probably eight or ten of inferior size.

The population of Boston proper, according to the last census in 1850, was 138,788; of the whole district, within a circle of nine miles, it was 269,874. Estimating the population of the town alone at about 160,000, there will be found one place of worship to about 12,000 inhabitants.

The church edifices in Boston, especially those of the Congregational (including Baptist) and the Episcopal denomina-

* Miss Bremer.

tions, are of a highly creditable character as to architecture. Some of them are ornamented with lofty towers, with their usual adjuncts of spires and bells.

SECTION II.

Rhode Island is the smallest of the American provinces, containing only five counties and thirty-nine towns. It is considered highly salubrious and healthy. In summer it is refreshed by sea breezes. Beautiful both for its situation and luxuriance, it has been denominated the "Eden of America." Its principal towns are Providence and Newport. The former is situated on an eminence—its site a peninsula—between two indentations of sea, one of which is called the Providence River, and is navigable for the largest ships to the wharfs of the town. It commands a complete view of Narragansett Bay, and is fifty-five miles from the sea, forty-three south-west from Boston, and one hundred and eighty-six from New York.

Providence is built on both sides of the river or arms of the sea, and is connected by wide and substantial bridges. It is a large handsome town, containing many elegant buildings, and from forty-six to fifty thousand inhabitants. The whole population of the island is probably upwards of one hundred and fifty thousand. This is the second city or chief town in New England in population, wealth, and commerce. Its commerce was formerly foreign; but the investments of its citizens have been principally of late years in domestic manufactures—cotton goods, machinery, and metallic wares.

Among the principal buildings in Providence are, Brown University, the State House, the City Hall, the Hospital, the City Jail, the State Prison, the Arcade, a building for the Historical Society, containing a few early records, the Athenæum, with a large library for general use and reading rooms. Besides these, there are a number of places of religious worship. But among these it is said, that none but the Arcade, faced at either extremity with an Ionic portico, makes any pretensions to architectural distinction or display.

Brown University is the most attractive and important object of the place. The buildings are of stone, and finely situated on the summit of a neighbouring height. The University received its designation from Nicholas Brown, who, if not its founder, was one of its earliest and most munificent benefactors. It was

incorporated in 1769, and soon rose to a very respectable rank among the kindred institutions of the country. For several years subsequently, owing principally, it is supposed, to a defect of discipline and good government, it declined and languished until ready to become extinct. This state of things resulted in a change of the principal, which produced a speedy and thorough revolution in its affairs. The course of studies prescribed by the new *regime* was such as to raise the acquirements of the institution to as high a standard as the most efficient collegiate institutions in the Union. A code of laws was framed and adopted by the faculty, which may be considered a model for the government of collegiate institutions generally.

The salaries of the acting professors were raised, and the offices of non-resident professors, whose places were little less than sinecures, were discharged. All the officers were required to occupy rooms in the college buildings during term time, and the chairs were all ably filled. The library was augmented by donations from England and soon numbered 6,000 volumes, including within its walls an additional 6,000 belonging to literary societies, thus making an aggregate of 12,000 volumes, recently increased to 28,000 volumes, exclusive of 6,000 accessible to all the students of the university, which comprise the libraries of the Philarmenian and United Brother Societies. Many of these works are of great value; they are also well arranged, and kept in excellent condition. The philosophical apparatus is extensive, and measures have been constantly taken to supply deficiencies, and to complete a still more extensive collection. Arrangements were likewise made by which to add to the studies already prescribed, a course of popular instruction in English and the modern languages of Europe, for the benefit of such as do not intend entering the learned professions. The students in the university some time since edited a periodical called "The Brunonian,"—a production which exhibited talent and learning of considerable promise.

These great and efficient changes in this important institution, which have raised it to a proud rank among those of greater age and richer endowment, were effected under the administration of President Wayland, recently retired,—one of the ablest and most reputable men of the United States,—assisted by several able colleagues. The affairs of the institution are governed by a board of fellows and trustees, composed of

gentlemen of high character and ability. The Chancellor of the University for many years was the venerable Bishop Griswold, whose name is associated in the minds of all who knew him with everything that is good in christian character, and great in literary attainment.

The faculty of the University consists at the present time of a President and ten Professors, and in 1850 there were one hundred and ninety-five students, while to that date the alumni numbered one thousand seven hundred and sixty-five, of whom four hundred had entered the ministry. The presidential chair is now ably filled by the Rev. Professor Sears.

Providence contains many benevolent institutions, and is equal to any city of its size in the number and efficiency of its schools. It contains thirty-five churches of different denominations, thereby proving that the tolerant spirit of its founder has occasioned no indifference to the great subject of religion.

Newport stands on the south-west of Rhode Island at the head of Narragansett Bay,—the bay stretching westward before the town. Rising gradually from the water, it is deservedly celebrated for the beauty of its situation as well as for its salubrious air. It is, therefore, a place of fashionable summer resort. The harbour of Newport is one of the best in the Union, while the whole island possesses numerous localities suitable for commerce and manufactures. Newport is five miles from the sea, thirty south-east of Providence, seventy-one from Boston, and one hundred and sixty-five from New York. The face of the surrounding country is mostly level. Part of the State has a thin and sterile soil, but other parts are fertile.

In Rhode Island the first cotton was produced and manufactured, and the first cotton-mill erected in the New World.

This State was established by the celebrated Puritan, Roger Williams, a man distinguished by his uncompromising adherence to the Scripture rule of doctrine, practice, and ecclesiastical organization and discipline, maintaining that a christian church is an exclusively spiritual institution, independent of the State, and complete in itself for all the purposes of education and government. The system of government established by him was consequently the first in the world based on the rights of conscience and on entire intellectual liberty. Under the direction of this refugee from foreign oppression and colonial persecution,—this prince of the Pilgrim Fathers,—on November 11th, 1641, it was ordered by the whole body of freemen, and

unanimously agreed upon, "That the government which this body politic doth attend unto in this island, and the jurisdiction thereof, in favour of our prince, is a democracy or popular government; that is to say, it is in the power of free men, orderly assembled, or the major part of them, to make or constitute just laws by which they shall be regulated, and to choose from among themselves such ministers as shall see them faithfully executed between man and man." It was further ordered that "none be accounted a delinquent for doctrine." And this law for liberty of conscience was perpetuated—a charter having been procured from Charles the First, and subsequently a more comprehensive one from Charles the Second on his restoration. "The little community was held together by the bonds of affection and freedom of opinion," says Bancroft; "benevolence was their rule; they trusted in the power of love to win the victory." The signet for the State was ordered to be a sheaf of arrows, with the motto, "*Amor vincit omnia.*"*

Williams landed at Rhode Island in 1636, on an arm of the sea projecting inland from Narragansett Bay, near the spot now occupied by the city of Providence,—which city was so denominated in commemoration of that event,—described as a "place of shelter for persons distressed for conscience' sake." According to the legend, the Indians, on the approach of Williams, saluted him with the words, "What cheer," and these words were adopted as the motto of the State, and to this day

* Roger Williams first settled at Plymouth, but was afterwards driven from it by the intolerance of some of his brethren of a different denomination, who themselves sought in the New World an asylum from persecution. He was welcomed to Rhode Island by a native chief called Massasoit: "and," says his historian, "the barbarian heart of Canonicus, the chief of the Narragansetts loved him as his own soul."

The Pilgrim Fathers who fled from persecution at home, and who willingly expatriated themselves in the cause of civil and religious liberty, when they settled on the western shores of the Atlantic, endeavoured to found a Scriptural community. And what was the result? Those very men who had maintained the cause of human rights and liberty, who had thrown their all into the contest with the noblest recklessness of the truest heroism, founded a theocratic association, and made church membership a criterion of civil privileges. The temptations to such a course were no doubt most powerful under the circumstances of their exile; but the laws were, nevertheless, essentially tyrannical, and brought forth the natural fruits of dissention, coupled with the hypocrisy or heresy of those who purchased their civil status by assenting to religious forms and ceremonies in which they had no real interest. Society recovered its equilibrium by a law which limits the disturbing forces and which varied according to the intelligence of the people.—*Eclectic Review, October*, 1854.

appear on the city seal, and are impressed on the public documents. An elegant building, situated in one of the principal streets, is called, "What Cheer Hall."

The villages in this island are built principally of wood, and are in general situated in valleys for the convenience of water. Surrounded by gardens, they present a beautiful appearance. There are also glass conservatories for the cultivation of tropical flowers and plants. The land is covered with cotton. Woollen and other manufactures are numerous, and many of its inhabitants are opulent and highly educated. The government of Rhode Island is almost the same as before the Revolution. A Governor, Senate, and House of Representatives are elected annually by the citizens of the State, the ordinary revenues of which are derived from a population of 147,000, and an area of forty-seven by thirty-seven miles. They amount to only 50,000 dollars; but, besides this, the State expends directly from its treasury for education the sum of 35,000 dollars per annum, to which may be added 55,000 dollars raised by local assessment for the same object. The yearly salary of the Governor is said to be 400 dollars, or about £80 sterling. The taxation is about a dollar a head per annum, including everything.

CHAPTER XXI.

CHIEF COMMERCIAL CITIES CONTINUED.—New York. Interesting circumstances of an approach to this city. Description of appearance of rural scenery in sailing up the East River. Different islands. Aspect of the city on entering the harbour. Its situation, extent, population, streets, houses, public buildings, library, philanthropic institutions, hotels, Croton water works, manners and customs. State or county of New York. Statistics of religious denominations. Number of adherents to each. Number of ministers of religion in the city and state. Progress and present state of education. Literature and arts. Brooklyn. Its connection with New York. How approached. Particulars of interest as to its situation. Institutions, navy yard, cemetery, &c.

New York was originally called New Amsterdam, being first settled by the Dutch. On approaching this city from the Atlantic up the East River, from which only a true impression of the character of its position can be obtained, a scene of commercial bustle presents itself somewhat similar to that on the Thames towards London.

The first objects of attraction to a stranger, as the vessel moves forward up the stream, are the high lands of Nevisink, on a conspicuous part of which stand two light-houses marking the entrance to the harbour. The writer may be permitted, perhaps, to describe the scene as it presented itself to him personally as a voyager some years since, in company with some other passengers.

Before us lay Staten Island, with its snow-white houses, scarcely distinguishable through the dark mist that then spread over land and water. On the right stretched Long Island, green and verdant.

The narrows were next approached, situated between the upper and lower bay of the great American capital, the pass strongly defended by batteries; the sloping shores on either side disclosing scattered villas, reminding the spectator of the river scenery on the banks of the Isis or the Clyde. The bay opened out magnificently, bounded on the right by Long Island, and on the left by Staten Island and New Jersey, altogether presenting a most beautiful picture; the hills of the

finely undulating country covered with wood, agreeably interspersed with villas and cottages, smiling in all the charms of the cultivated landscape. Beyond, appeared the delta of Manhattan Island, though from the mist and rain almost undistinguishable; as also several small islands,—Blackwell's, Bedlow's, and Governor's. The latter chiefly attracted attention by its formidable batteries,—Fort Columbus and Castle William,—and its beautifully cultivated appearance. The city lay looming in the distance, very imposing in its outline as the mist gradually cleared away; while its whole extent, as far as the eye could scan along the North and East Rivers, by which it is almost environed, displayed a forest of masts. Long Island stretched away far onwards on our right. This island is the largest in the States, and is separated from the main land by Long Island Sound; its western end approaching New York. It is about one hundred and forty miles in length and ten in width. The land is, in general, low and level, with the exception of a few hills, viz., the landmark of Montuck, on which stands a lighthouse, and Hampstead, at its eastern extremity, —the latter of which is three hundred and nineteen feet above the sea level. It is thickly populated, and in conjunction with the surrounding scenery, presented a beautiful appearance from the deck of the vessel.

The clouds and mist having at length completely dispersed, and everything being bathed in the flood of sunshine that succeeded, the suburbs of the city and the whole scene became additionally attractive; especially just before the full round orb of day sunk into the clouds of gold and amber that seemed spread out for his repose, his last slanting rays reflected from the snow-white houses, public buildings, and villas, in all the magic of light and shade; while the rising hills beyond, though they gave but a limited horizon to the picture, looked enchantingly green and refreshing—"beautiful exceedingly."

We soon anchored in the broad stream before the city, amidst a vast concourse of shipping, bearing the flags of almost all nations, and the most abundant evidences of bustle and activity. Steamboats and craft of all descriptions traversing the harbour,—the creaking of machinery,—the loud voices both on the river and from the shore,—all indicated the presence of a vast commercial capital.

New York, the "Empire City," which is situated ninety miles north-east of Philadelphia, and two hundred and ten miles from

Boston, stands on the southern extremity of Manhatten Island, which is thirteen and a half miles long, and about one and a half or two miles in medial breadth, enlarging in width as it recedes from the apex of the triangle, which is formed by the confluence of the two great streams before mentioned, called the North, or Hudson, and East Rivers, bounding it on the east and west; and which, rising westward, fall into the Atlantic Ocean—the view terminating by the beautifully wooded shore of New Jersey. New York, however, is not exactly an island, though divided by the strait called Haarlem River, which crosses from the East River to the Hudson. Whilst New York itself may, as a whole, be considered deficient in pictorial beauty as compared with many sea-ports in Europe, arising from the limited extent of the island or peninsula on which it stands, and the consequent absence of villas, yet the entire landscape it adorns probably transcends anything seen on so extensive a scale, and in the beautiful proportions of its different features; moreover, it is, perhaps, without a rival as to its situation for commerce.

In no season of the year can there be any obstruction to its communication with the ocean; and with the magnificent Hudson stretching nearly two hundred miles into the interior of a fertile country, its natural advantages are unparalleled. It is impossible to conceive of a finer site for a great mercantile city than that occupied by New York,—a tongue of land jutting forth into deep water, and protected by the curved point and islands which form its bay. It therefore presents such facilities for commercial purposes as the whole world cannot rival. This city, indeed, has been compared to a large hotel, or caravanserai for the world.

The traffic of New York is immense, both by sea and canals and railroads. The latter penetrate to the very centre of the city, the cars being drawn by horses from the station in the environs where the locomotive is detached, and run along the causeway.

Constantly stimulated by the current of commerce ever flowing through these channels, business knows no rest and no termination. "The mighty advancement of New York during the last ten years, distances all that ever happened in the progress of a city; and considering its natural advantages and the commercial facilities to which enterprise and art have added, it is impossible to conceive how great a city and port it may become.

"But New York is not merely a commercial emporium. She is largely engaged in manufactures of various kinds;—to a greater extent, indeed, than any other city in America is she so employed. In 1850 she had 3387 productive establishments, in which there was a capital invested amounting to 34,232,822 dollars. In those works there were employed 83,620 hands, and their produce in that year was valued at 105,218,308 dollars."* Tons of paper and barrels of mucilage are every month employed in the manufacture of letter envelopes. It is estimated that at least 4,000,000 are made in New York every week, one establishment turning out nearly 1,500,000 weekly of 1000 varieties. They are mostly made by hand, girls being employed in folding and gumming them, a single girl being able to gum from 60,000 to 70,000 a day, and to fold from 5,000 to 7,000. The machines for making them average 18 envelopes a minute, or 20,000 a day.

The police arrangements of this city are represented as being very imperfect. Nor can the State Legislature, nor the Corporation, be complimented on their administration of its civil affairs in general. The admirable order and efficiency of the fire brigade is, on the contrary, the subject of universal commendation.

The province of which New York city is the capital, is three hundred miles from north to south, and three hundred and fifty miles from east to west. Its area is 55,000 square miles. It is said by another authority to be, exclusive of Long Island, about four hundred and eight miles long; but including that island about four hundred and eighty, and in breadth from north to south, about three hundred and ten miles, the whole including a superficial area of 46,085 square miles.† The population of the city and suburbs, including Brooklyn, presented in 1855 an aggregate of 1,104,498, showing that there is in the territory surrounding the city, a population of more than half a million, and but little less than that within the city limits; exhibiting, moreover, a rate of increase equal to 100 per cent. in sixteen years,—a ratio which, should it continue, will make the inhabitants of New York city, in twenty-five years, amount to 2,000,000, the present population of London, and the population of the United States altogether, to 50,000,000. The last general

* Robertson's Few Months in America.
† Colton's American Gazetteer.

census returns give the entire population of the State of New York, 3,436,118.* The permanent population of the city alone is now estimated at 629,810, while it receives 300,000 emigrants annually from every country in Europe, ranking it amongst the commercial cities of the world the third in population, and the second in importance.

On the west side of the city, as already said, flows the North, and on the east, the East River. The latter is about a mile wide, dividing New York from Long Island. The entrance to the harbour lies between Sandy Hook, on which stands a light of great brilliancy, and a part of Lind Island on the north. At a distance to the northward of this there are also two beacons which are illuminated, called the "False Hook Lights," serving as low lights to shipping in the night. The highlands of Nevisink are at the entrance of the harbour on the south side. At a distance, they appear like an island, nearly level on the summit, with the exception of some irregular elevations, and rise from about two to three hundred feet above the sea. Fort Diamond and Governor's Island, are, as already intimated, at the entrance of the Narrows, situated between Long and Staten Islands, on the eastern shore. The latter island contains a battery that defends the pass to the city, surrounded by grounds of considerable extent, designated "The Castle Gardens," intersected by walks, shaded and ornamented with shrubs, trees, and flowers, for the recreation of the citizens. The Battery itself is about fifty yards from the shore, and is approached by a substantial bridge. The gardens are often used for public entertainments, and are fitted up during the summer season for displays of fireworks—an object of great attraction—and on such occasions they are thronged with visitors.

Broadway is the principal street of the city, and is one of the finest in the world. It is eighty feet wide, commencing at the Battery, and extending in an unbroken line the whole length of the city—a distance of nearly three miles—along which omnibuses ply as they do in London. Here in this street, and towards its southern extremity in particular, the interest and attraction of the city seem to centre. It is the Fleet Street and Strand of the first city of the New World.

The houses in New York are good, many of them elegant,

* Albany Register. The population of New York city in 1856 was estimated at 800,000.—*Railroad Guide.*

and present a different and a more unique appearance than in the cities and provincial towns in England, as they are seldom intermixed with those of an inferior description.

The city, however, is not without its contrasts of poverty and riches, beauty and deformity, though not to the same extent as in European cities. The St. Giles's of the Empire City is the district named "Five Points," so designated from five narrow, filthy streets diverging from one place, where the lowest and most depraved of the population have their abode.

The dwellings possessed by the more wealthy citizens are generally of brick, sometimes of brown sandstone, others of brick faced with stone or marble—those in the Fifth Avenue are superb. Their interiors are very similar to the residences of the same class in England. The dining and drawing-rooms are almost uniformly on the ground floor, and are made, in numerous instances, to communicate with each other by folding doors, which, on any occasion of entertainment or necessity, are thrown open for convenience. Superiority or splendour of furniture is not one of those adjuncts of wealth and station which the Americans in general take pride in displaying. Hence drawing-rooms are mostly more primitive in their appearance and appliances than those of the more opulent classes in England.

In about the centre of Broadway, and about half-a-mile from the Battery, stand the City Hall, the Merchants' Exchange, Hall of Justice, New York Hospital, and Post Offices. The first of these, with some other public buildings, is situated in an open space of ground, called "The Park," a triangular enclosure of eleven acres, verdant in summer with grass and trees, and ornamented with a beautiful and capacious fountain, pouring its clear streams from the calyx of an Egyptian lotus. On the City Hall is a large bell, at which a man is always stationed to give notice of fires: conflagrations of a very destructive kind having been of very common occurrence in the city; although of late years, from the energy and the admirable order observed among the firemen, very serious damage but seldom results. The street terminates at the upper end in a handsome square, with the Governor's House in front, ornamented with public walks, gardens, and pleasure-grounds.

Among other attractive buildings in the city, are large churches and chapels, some of them ornamented with elegant cupolas and spires. The new Trinity Church, in Wall Street, on

the site of the first Episcopal Church in America, is a magnificent building, and the best specimen of pure Gothic architecture in the country. Other edifices of note are the New York Institution, occupied by the Literary and Philosophical Society; the Historical Society; the Lyceum of Natural History; the Museum; the Cooper Institute; and the American Society of Fine Arts, or Arts' Union. The latter contains, among its other exhibitions of native talent, the celebrated marble bust of "Proserpine," the "Greek Slave," and the "Fisher Boy" listening to the sea-sounds in a conch shell, the masterly performances of the famed artist, Hiram Powers, as also some splendid paintings by Alston.

The Cooper Institute is a noble building, erected by Mr. Peter Cooper, of New York, to be devoted to the "moral, intellectual, and physical improvement of his countrymen." The building consists of an entire block, having a front on Third Avenue of one hundred and ninety-five feet, on Fourth Avenue, one hundred and fifty-five feet, on Eighth Street, one hundred and forty-three feet, and on Seventh Street, eighty-six feet. It is in the immediate vicinity of the new Bible House, the Astor Library, the Mercantile Library, and the rooms of various literary and scientific societies. In the basement is a large lecture-room, one hundred and twenty-five feet long by eighty-two wide and twenty-one high; and this, and also the first and second stories, which are arranged for stores and offices, are to be rented, so as to produce a revenue to meet the annual expenses of the Institute. The Institute proper, or the Union, commences with the third story, in which is an exhibition-room, thirty feet high, and of an area of one hundred and twenty-five by eighty-two feet, lighted from above by a dome. The fourth story may be considered as part of the third, being a continuation of galleries, with alcoves, for painting and sculpture. In the fifth story will be two large lecture-rooms, and the library, consisting of five rooms, which connect with each other and with the lecture-rooms. There are also rooms for experiments, for instruments, and for the use of artists. The cost of the building is about 300,000 dollars, and the annual income from the rented parts will be from 25,000 dollars to 30,000 dollars. The whole is to be given to a Board of Directors for the benefit of the public; the courses of lectures, the library, and the reading-rooms all to be free. In the munificence both of the gift and the endowment, and in the importance of the results intended to be

secured, the Cooper Institute will be a monument to its princely-hearted founder more noble than the pyramids.

Nor must Astor House or Hotel be forgotten in this enumeration of splendid or otherwise attractive edifices. It was erected by the proprietor whose name it bears, at an expense of £100,000. This is the Astor of Washington Irving, recently deceased, whom the novelist celebrates in his Astoria as going over to America a poor German boy, and acquiring a great fortune. Others have more recently been erected that rival this splendid edifice, both in size, extent, and grandeur. Among these are the Irving, the Prescott, the Metropolitan, and the Nicholas Hotels, which have an elevation of five or six stories, with a frontage of from three hundred to five hundred feet, and resemble in their external appearance the palaces of kings.

The Hotel Nicholas is about one hundred yards square, five stories high, will accommodate one thousand guests, and cost upwards of 1,000,000 dollars in its erection. These establishments seem to concentrate every convenience, and every known requirement of life.

There are several squares in different parts of the city beautifully arranged and ornamented, particularly near the upper extremity of Broadway, among the residences of the most wealthy of the citizens, although compared with the cities of Europe they are few and insignificant. This deficiency, however, is being supplied. Several have recently been formed; and a new park is to be opened in the upper part of New York, extending from Fifty-ninth Street, a little more than half a mile above the Crystal Palace, to One-hundred-and sixth Street, being about three miles in length, and from Fifth Avenue to Eighth Avenue, or about half a mile in width. There are seven thousand five hundred city lots taken from private owners and included in the park, for which more than 5,000,000 dollars is awarded. The city is awarded 650,000 dollars for property taken from it. Owners in the neighbourhood whose property is improved are assessed about 1,650,000 dollars towards the expense.

One of the most important, as well as ornamental works in the State, are the Croton Water Works, or the aqueduct for conveying water into the city from the Croton River, reminding an intelligent observer of the aqueducts of the ancient Romans. It might be almost termed a miracle of engineering. It is forty-five miles in length, will supply sixty million gallons of

water to the city daily, and cost between 12,000,000 and 13,000,000 dollars, or between £4,000,000 and £5,000,000 sterling. The aqueduct commences five miles from the Hudson River, and extends across the Haarlem River on a magnificent bridge of stone, called the High Bridge, and discharges its waters into a receiving reservoir, situate in Eighty-sixth Street and Sixth Avenue, and containing one hundred and fifty millions of gallons.

Among the most remarkable benevolent institutions are the Refuge for the Destitute, the Hospitals, the Model Farm for Orphan Children, and the Model Prison at Sing-sing. West-point, up the Hudson, is celebrated for its military establishments, situated amidst scenes of great natural beauty and historic interest.

The public libraries in the city of New York contain 337,200 volumes, of which 80,000 are in the Astor Library, 47,000 in the Mercantile Library, 40,000 in that of the New York Society, 25,000 in that of the New York Historical Society, 24,000 each in those of Columbia College and the Union Theological Seminary, 18,000 in the Apprentices' Library, 15,000 in that of the Free Academy, and 12,000 in that of the Episcopal Theological Seminary. During sixteen months, 160,274 volumes were delivered from the Mercantile Library; the number of visitors to its reading-room was 308,254.

Among some local peculiarities of custom observable by a stranger, is that in relation to the periodical domestic cleaning and change of residence. Just previously to the first of May, when spring really commences in the Middle and Northern States, it is an almost universal custom in New York city to have what is called a regular and systematic "clearing out" of their houses from the garret to the cellar; while it is equally the practice, previously to that day, to remove to new residences. In addition to the universal bustle of every domestic establishment, the trains of carts and waggons laden with household furniture that now crowd upon the sight would lead a stranger almost to believe that half the city was forming into a grand caravan to travel to Utah, Deseret, or California.

Nor are the customs of riding and driving here less singular and novel to an observant English stranger. A horseman never rises in his saddle, almost all horses being trained to pace; and on meeting a horseman or a vehicle of any kind you are expected, if travelling similarly, to pass on the right hand side

of the road, instead of the left, as is the custom in England. This seems to be a general rule in America, reminding the beholder of the well-known paradox, though here reversed,—

> "The law of the road is a paradox quite,
> For in orderly riding along,
> If you go to the left, you are sure to go right;
> If you go to the right, you go wrong."

The usual dinner-hour at New York, as is general in the cities of America, is three o'clock. Almost everywhere the tables, if not splendidly, are cleanly and neatly furnished; and the different courses at the principal hotels or lodging-houses are not brought in in succession as in England, but, as in Jamaica and the West Indies generally, the table is covered at once with the profusion prepared for the entertainment. Much has been said by some visitors of the ravenous manner in which the Americans despatch their meals, and their taciturnity during the process of eating them; but much of this is misrepresentation, or if it has been a custom, it is, like many other usages that deserve oblivion, fast disappearing, at least from respectable circles.

May-day in New York is one of great interest in many respects,—replete both with reality and romance. It is the grand nuptial day, when hundreds enter by marriage upon the realities of life.

It must not here be omitted that in this city are seen some encroachments upon democracy, such as *liveried* servants, and not unfrequent announcements of *distinguished* individuals at watering-places and hotels.

The State of New York, in form, is somewhat in the shape of an isosceles triangle, having the south-eastern shore of the lakes of Canada and the river Niagara for its base, and the city of New York for its apex. Each side of this triangle, except the base, is at least four hundred miles in length. Its superficial extent, already noted, is forty-six thousand square miles,—nearly as large as England,—and its population upwards of three millions,* nearly equal to that of Scotland. The Americans call New York the Empire State; and whether we regard the fertility of its soil, or the astonishing facilities it

* The "Albany Register" says, the census has been so far completed (it is presumed since the last decade) as to give the entire population of the State, which is 3,460,118.

affords for foreign commerce and inland navigation, it well deserves this lofty appellation.

Albany, on the Hudson, one hundred and forty-five miles above New York, is its nominal capital,—a city finely situated on the brow of a hill, which rises above the margin of the river.

Popular education in this State is almost universal. Upwards of five hundred thousand are taught in the common schools. There are also nearly three hundred academies, eleven colleges, and an university.

The ministers of religion are upwards of two hundred of all denominations, occupying, as is estimated, one hundred and fifty places of religious worship; and thus there is a place of worship for every eighteen hundred persons of all ages.

According to a directory published in the city in 1849, there were then in New York city three hundred and seventy-five streets and avenues, thirty-three banks, one hundred insurance companies, fifty periodicals, ninety-eight newspapers, one hundred and ten schools, one hundred and sixteen moral, benevolent, and literary associations, forty-one councils, two hundred and seventy-seven churches; of which forty-one were Protestant Episcopal, thirty-three Presbyterian, thirty-one Methodist Episcopal, twenty-six Baptist, seventeen Roman Catholic, fifteen Dutch Reformed, nine Jewish, seven Congregational, four Unitarian, four Universalist, four Friends', three Lutheran, two Associate Presbyterian, three Associate Reformed Presbyterian, thirteen Reformed Presbyterian, two Welch, one Methodist Protestant, twelve miscellaneous.

It may be regarded as remarkable, as has been before observed with respect to the continent in general, that extremes of heat and cold are greater in this State than in England, which is in nearly the same parallel of latitude, and vary considerably more than in Naples, which is precisely identical in position, a fact ascribable to the influence of the surrounding ocean; and doubtless the climate, depends for its variations, in a great measure, on the situation of any place with regard to the sea.

Connected with New York is Brooklyn, which is to this city what Southwark is to London. It occupies a peninsula on Long Island directly opposite, separated from New York, as before observed, by the East River, nearly a mile broad, and sufficiently deep to float vessels of war. Brooklyn is a town of considerable importance and extent, and presents a very neat and rural appearance, many of its streets having avenues

like those of Philadelphia, formed chiefly of the willow, the locust, the ecanthus, or Chinese tree, of the acacia family. Unlike New York, Brooklyn has all the quietness of a suburban village. The land on which the town stands ascends gradually from the banks of the river, and the houses which occupy the heights, and which are many of them delightful residences, tenanted by merchants and others of New York, command a fine prospect of the extended harbour, the city, and its environs, as also of the beautifully wooded heights and green fields in its own immediate vicinity.

The principal objects of attraction it presents are its Navy Yard and Cemetery,—the latter remarkable for the beautiful monument of Iowa, an Indian princess; and that of a young eccentric poet, situated near the Sylvan Water. The cemetery is called Greenwood. Like that of Boston, and other provincial towns in the north-east, it is really beautiful, both in arrangement and appearance,—another "*Pere la Chaise*" of the New World, but on a more gigantic scale than its prototype in France as to extent and design. It covers two hundred and forty-two acres of beautifully undulating ground, partly adorned with magnificent forest trees, presenting from its elevations beautiful and extensive views of land and sea.

The navy yard, called the New York Navy Yard, is the second in importance in the country; it occupies upwards of fifty acres of land, and gives employment to between four and five hundred men. It contains the largest dry dock in the United States, constructed to admit vessels of the largest size. The principal marine steam-engine works are also in New York; but there are large establishments of a mixed character in almost every town of importance in the Union. For the benefit of the men employed in the various works of the dock-yard, there is established an institution named the United States Lyceum. It consists of a splendid collection of curiosities and mineralogical and geological cabinets, with many other natural curiosities.

The two places, Brooklyn and New York, are connected by ferries and steamboats, of which there are several. There are at present no bridges, as over the Thames, connecting London with Southwark. These conveyances leave each side of the river every five minutes of the day, and continue to ply through the greater part of the night. Carts, waggons, horses, and stock of all kinds cross over in great numbers. Sometimes

horses and carriages are driven on the ferries and driven off again on the opposite side without either the horses being detached from the vehicle or the driver or inmates of the carriage quitting their seats, the round ends of the boats fitting into corresponding recesses in moveable piers, which rise and fall with the tide.

Brooklyn has upwards of one hundred thousand inhabitants, a magnificent Town House or City Hall, and from fifty to sixty churches and chapels, with numerous schools. The Female Academy here contains five hundred young girls. At this institution they study and graduate as at Boston, and as is done by young men in the English universities. The principal public buildings are the City Hall, the Lyceum, the City Library, the Savings' Bank, and the Female Academy.

The ferries also cross the North River to Jersey city, Whichawken, and Hobokin, where also, as at Brooklyn and Staten Island, it is mostly the wealthy who reside. At the latter are the Elysian Fields, which present an inviting retreat to the toil-worn and country-loving citizen of the capital, whither he occasionally flies to inhale the balmy breath, and to enjoy the soothing influences of nature,—to revive the powers that have been impaired, and to heal the bruises that have been inflicted, by an artificial mode of existence. Steamboats also ascend the Hudson, morning and evening, to Albany and Troy, conveying thousands of passengers onward on their journey to the Hesperides of the far West,—the only region of American romance,—the golden land of promise that is ever in perspective.

CHAPTER XXII.

Cross Continental Cross Country.—State of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia. Situation and importance. Ancient capital of the State. Origin of Philadelphia. Resources. Voyage up the Delaware. Incidents. Beautiful scenery. Reflections. General appearance of the city. Houses. Streets. Public buildings. Institutions. Public squares and pleasure grounds. Suburban villas. Gardens. Agriculture of the State. Circumstances for which Philadelphia is celebrated. Description of the city and suburbs as viewed from the cupola of the State-house.

Pennsylvania, from its position and general importance, is called "The Keystone State:" it was founded in the year 1682. Next to New York, it is the largest in extent of the four Middle States, and second as to numerical strength in the confederation. Its nominal capital is Harrisburgh, beautifully situated on the banks of the Susquehanna, ninety-eight miles west of Philadelphia.

The interior of the State is traversed by the different ridges of the Alleghany Mountains, while the eastern and western sections are moderately undulating It was settled, as is well known, by William Penn, of the Society of Friends, the son of Admiral Penn, who subjugated Jamaica with General Venables, —and it thus became a colony of Friends.

The soil is well cultivated, and yields in abundance all the varieties of grain and other products common to most of the Western and North-Eastern States. Its mineral wealth is probably greater than that of any other portion of the country, and it is highly distinguished for its manufactures and other public works.

Places of religious worship and schools are numerous. The latter are supposed to be nearly five hundred in number. Pennsylvania has also one university and eighteen colleges, with many respectable private seminaries.

The writer, in his visit to this distinguished and interesting section of the country, many years since, proceeded from New York, partly by water and partly by land. The steamboat in which he embarked was a magnificent vessel, crowded with

passengers—a floating palace in its interior accommodations and ornaments. A spacious dining saloon was furnished with the richest carpets and sofas, and from tall mirrors, surmounting marble tables, the person of each passenger was reflected every moment. Among the company were some personages high in office, and a considerable number of emigrants from Europe.

We proceeded along the noble bay and harbour of New York, amidst all our smoke and steam, with great quietude and velocity. The scene altogether was beautiful: the narrow straits between Staten Island and New Jersey shore, adorned on both sides with beautiful residences, gardens, and pleasure grounds, meadows and corn-fields, the abodes and their appendages of opulent citizens from the metropolis, arrayed in all the attractions of fine architecture and eligible position, and commanding views of the city, islands, harbour, and adjacent shores; while far in the distance the smoke arose in beautiful spiral wreaths over the masses of foliage that skirted the horizon—the sign of a numerous population.

Here and there glistened through the rich foliage that partially enveloped them, the suburban villages of New Brighton and Staten Island; the latter the Quarantine ground and Greenwich Hospital of the States, as also of historical importance from its being the rendezvous of Lord Howe in the first contest of the mother country against her colonies, previously to his sailing up the Chesapeak to his attack on Philadelphia.

Boats passing along,—the measured strokes of the oars as they sparkled by their contact with the water in the full blaze of the sun,—the swift motion of the lesser craft as they swept by us,—were all calculated to interest a stranger recently arrived from the tropics. The banks of the river in some places presented every variety of wild and picturesque rocks, giving evidence of some fearful subterranean convulsion;—thick forests,—fertile plains, sometimes gently sloping, sometimes stretched out among lofty crags where industry had won a domain from the fortresses of nature; here and there ornamented with flourishing towns and villages. In a word, the eye ranged over a landscape that seemed to possess every element of effect, while the wildest and most boundless scenes were presented by the distant mountains;—there were the rushing torrents,—the dark, mysterious forests,—and, over all, the gorgeous masses of cloud sailing across the transparent heavens. The whole State

presented a pleasing alternation of hill and vale, cultivated fields and primeval woodlands.

We disembarked at South Amoy, twenty-eight miles from New York, taking cars from thence to Bourden Town, thirty-five miles distant, and thus passed up the beautiful Delaware through Trenton.

Bourden Town, which is situated thirty-five miles from South Amoy, on the Delaware River, is the capital of New Jersey. Once a place of considerable trade, it is now celebrated for little except its ingenious and antique wooden bridge across the Delaware, the carriage-way of which is underneath the arches, supported by heavy iron chains suspended from the parapet or summit of the bridge.

In our journey by land we passed the mansion once tenanted by the *ci-devant* king of Spain, the late Joseph Bonaparte, which is situated on the banks of the Delaware, occupying a rising ground at some distance from the road. The estate was originally called "Point Breeze," and resembled the residence and grounds of a country gentleman in England. We were to terminate our journey by an ascent of the noble Delaware, running through an undulating and richly-wooded country,—a circumstance which awakened in the mind of the writer deeply interesting feelings, associated as it was with some romantic ideas of early youth, and calling up recollections not less interesting of riper years, as the result of acquaintance with the history of the labours and successes of the devoted missionaries of the past generation,—Eliot and Brainard, the Mayhews and others, among the children of the wilderness, at the forks of the Delaware and Crosweeksung. What a contrast was now presented to the scenes and circumstances they—not more than a century since—witnessed and described.*

* "Having received new orders to go to a number of Indians on the Delaware River," says Mr. Brainard, "I this day took all my clothes, books, &c., and disposed of them. I then set out for the Delaware River, and made it on my way to return to Mr. Sargeant's in the evening. Rode several hours in the rain through the howling wilderness." The next day he went forward on his journey, continues his biographer, crossed the Hudson River to Delaware, about a hundred miles through a desolate and hideous country above New Jersey, where there were but few settlements.

The names of Eliot, Mayhew, and Brainard, are justly placed among the benefactors of the pagans on this continent. But the question arises to a traveller, Where are the churches established by these apostolic men? We visit the banks of the Susquehanna and the Delaware, where but a century more or less ago, Brainard fed his pious flock, and there we find nothing that reminds us that

The country on both sides the river was delightful. Here, was a region rich in orchards and corn-fields,—there, a forest extending itself for several miles over a space beautifully diversified with hill and dale,—a quiet, unbroken, far-reaching landscape,—there, a romantic village, each clean white dwelling, with its rural porch and its gay flower garden, contrasting beautifully with the dark or vivid green of the fields and woods,—old farm-houses, in dull solitary grandeur and languid repose, with villas of a superior order, and occupying a commanding site,—the noble Delaware, the while, creeping along in silent grandeur through the level plains, all creating the highest interest as we approached the city. Nothing, perhaps, seen out of England, exceeded the beauty of some of the suburban villas,—the disposition of the grounds,—the grouping of the trees,—the style of the architecture,—the terraces and statues, all reminded us of England. Above all, the beautiful outlines of the adjacent heights which closed in the view were illuminated with the light of the setting sun, and soon the bosom of the water, when rocks, and mountains, and city were fast receding in the darkness, presented a scene which interested both the eye and the heart.

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christian missionary ever laboured among the native tenants of the soil. Where are the offspring of those churches? They are gone,—they have not only left their father's sepulchres for wilds far to the West, but they have forgotten their pious example, and have mingled with their unreclaimed brethren of the forest. Various causes of this, doubtless, might be named; but I am persuaded that the most powerful is that these worthy missionaries were not furnished with the means for supporting schools for the education of the converts of their children. Some attempts, indeed, were made by Eliot and the Mayhews, in translating part of the Bible into some of the Indian dialects, and some few youths were taught to read, but nothing of a permanent character in this department was attempted. This evil has to a considerable degree been remedied by modern missions, but it is to be feared that the importance of schools in giving a permanent character in such neighbourhoods where they labour, to missions in heathen lands, is not even now sufficiently regarded. Hence the introduction and establishment of schools is an object of special importance at every Missionary Station. It lays a foundation for perpetuating the religion which is taught. If schools are in operation in which the Scriptures are read, divine truth like "the leaven hid in three measures of meal," will silently diffuse a permanent salutary influence. Other facts show that schools are of immense importance. Without them there cannot be a native agency raised up, and a native agency there must be before the world will be fully evangelized. It may be added that it has been almost invariably found that at such stations as have been abandoned for want of European labourers, where no schools have been established, the cause of God has in almost all cases been extinguished in the course of years, and that on the contrary, when those stations where schools have been established for any length of time, have been deserted from a similar cause, God has raised up native agency to carry on and perpetuate the work.

The city of Philadelphia is situated on an isthmus, about two miles wide, between the Delaware and the Schuylkill rivers, five miles above their junction; and in the districts to the north and south of these rivers, the inhabitants are independent of the city, having their own municipal governments. The more densely populated parts of the city have a circumference of about eight miles, and a length on the Delaware of from four to five miles. It is built on a plain slightly ascending from the river, the highest point of which is sixty-four feet above high-water-mark.

On the east bank of the Schuylkill immense reservoirs are seen supplying each of the six hundred streets of the city with an abundance of water. Bridges lead across the Schuylkill and the Delaware; steamboats keep up a constant intercourse with New York and Baltimore; a railway over the Alleghanies and the Pennsylvanian Canal communicate with Pitsburgh and the Mississippi valley.

Philadelphia, therefore, is a great thoroughfare, besides being the political capital of Pennsylvania, and the seat of a large and flourishing trade.

The capital employed in manufacture alone exceeds ten millions of dollars.

The real and personal property of the inhabitants is worth more than five hundred millions of dollars.

The population of the city is estimated at upwards of half-a-million, and it is thus the third as to importance in the Union.

Philadelphia is ninety miles, or by railway about five or six hours, distant from New York, three hundred and twenty-two miles south-west from Boston, ninety-seven from Baltimore, and one hundred and thirty-five from Washington; and stands at the head of the bay formed by the mouth of the river Delaware. It is one hundred and twenty-six miles from the Atlantic by the course of the river and bay, but these are navigable the whole way by ships of the largest tonnage.

The shores on each side of the bay are richly wooded, and scattered over with neat farm-houses and villages.

The streets of the city are laid out in squares like a chess-board, the streets crossing each other at right angles, and bearing the names of the different trees of the country. The city, as originally planned, formed an oblong square, with a river on either side, and a straight street on either end. But several populous suburbs have arisen in the neighbourhood, which now

form parts of the city similar to the connection of Westminster and Southwark with London, so that the mass of buildings constituting Philadelphia proper alone retains its original form. The houses are of red brick, generally well-built and handsome; the more elegant are ornamented with white marble steps and silver knockers. For the most part they are faced with a description of white marble, which abounds in that part of the State, and with which most of the public buildings are constructed, or at least this material is used in the basement story, steps, and window-sills.

Well-constructed sewers being arranged to carry the drainage far down the channel of the Delaware, Philadelphia is one of the cleanest cities of the Union. Its cleanliness is proverbial. No town in Holland can vie with it for cleanliness. There are seen no dirty and filthy streets, the refuges of squalid poverty; —thus forming a contrast to almost every other city of the world. And still less even than any other town of the Union does it exhibit a disparity of rich and poor. The republican and democratic character of Philadelphia may be almost read in the external aspect of its capital. Its chief defect is want of variety,—unbroken uniformity wanting relief; it is distractingly regular. "In walking about the city for four or five hours," observes Mr. Dickens in his Notes on America, "I would have given fifty pounds for a crooked street." So monotonously uniform are they, that it may justly be said,—

> "Street answers street, each alley has a brother,
> And half the city just reflects the other."

All the streets are well paved, and the footways on each side are generally formed of red bricks instead of flags. Along the edge of the foot pavement, and along many of the streets on both sides, are growing trees of different descriptions,—Lombardy poplars, walnut, chestnut, &c.,—the beautifully green foliage of which not only contrasts agreeably with the buildings on either side, but afford a most delightful shade from the fierce rays of a summer's sun. The streets, also, are named after these trees.

The principal public buildings are the United States Bank, decorated with superb fluted columns and a white marble portico; the Pennsylvania Bank; the Exchange; the Custom-House; the State-House, so celebrated for its historical associations; the Post Office; the great Model Prison, or Eastern Penitentiary, on the separate system; the State Prison, so celebrated for the

advantages it exhibits of a judicious treatment of criminals; the Lunatic Asylum; the Hospital, an excellent institution; the Pantheon; the Gerard College; the Franklin Library; the Drawing Academy for Young Girls, and Medical College for Ladies.

The institution called the State Prison of Pennsylvania, and one or two other public institutions, merit more than a passing notice. The former is a large building of granite, of great extent, surrounded by a tower at each angle, enclosing within its walls an area of ten acres of land. In the centre of the area is an observatory. The principle of punishment is solitary confinement, mitigated by labour. There is in this State, as in several others, but one capital offence, viz., that of deliberate premeditated murder. Punishment for other offences consists of fine, imprisonment, and labour; and these are awarded separately or conjointly according to the magnitude of the crime. When prisoners have been convicted and sent to the great jail at Philadelphia to undergo their punishment, it is expected of them that they should maintain themselves out of their daily labour,—that they should pay for their food and washing,—as also for the use of their different implements of labour,—that they should defray the expenses of their commitment, and of their prosecution and trial; an account of all which is regularly kept against them, and if at the expiration of the term of their punishment there should be a surplus of money in their favour, arising out of the produce of their work, it is given to them as a present on their discharge.

As a consequence of the admirable regulations on which the prison is conducted, it has rather the appearance of a large manufactory than a jail. Carpenters, weavers, joiners, nail-makers, are all busily employed, and with the greatest order and regularity: while no chains are used or needed as security.

The effect of this system is greatly advantageous both to the criminals and to the State,—to the criminals by its promotion of habits of industry, good morals, and religion,—to the State by the diminution of crime, and the restoration to its bosom of numbers of reformed citizens.

The State, since the operation of this and kindred systems of penal discipline, has experienced a diminution of crime to the extent of one half; while the greater part of the criminals have been restored from the jail to society as honest and industrious, if not moral and religious characters. The conduct of

numbers during confinement has been so exemplary as to obtain for them a remission of their sentence.*

The Lunatic Asylum is a very extensive and beautiful institution, and is also admirably governed. The whole demesne, which extends over several acres of ground, is surrounded by a wall so constructed as to obviate all impression of restraint; at the same time it possesses every element of attraction,—everything that can possibly excite the sympathies and best feelings of the inmates.

The Girard College is a large school, in which three hundred boys, otherwise unprovided for, are instructed in lettered knowledge, and in every kind of handicraft trade. The building is of the purest white marble even to the roof, with a portico and colonade, in imitation of the Greek Temple of Minerva, or rather, probably, after the same model as the Madeleine at Paris.

At the Drawing Academy for Young Women, instruction is given gratuitously, or at a trifling cost. This consists principally of drawing, painting, and grammatical composition; in the execution of designs for woven fabrics; carpets or paper hangings; in wood engravings, lithography, &c. This institution has already been so successful, and so great is the progress made by the pupils, so numerous are the orders for designs, wood engravings, and other works, and so remunerative is it to the artisan, that the young girls are able already to make considerable earnings; and there is every reason to believe that in the course of a few years the establishment will be able to support itself.

The Medical College for Ladies, which now contains nearly one hundred female medical students, enables females to receive a scientific education as physicians. It was established by the efforts of an intellectual and high-minded woman, Elizabeth Blackwell, designated Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell;—a clever and worthy descendant of those Pilgrim women who endured hardships so courageously, and laboured equally with their husbands in establishing that Republic which now extends over half a hemisphere. After much opposition and difficulty she graduated as physician in the city of Geneva, in western New York. She subsequently passed the medical colleges in Paris and London, and now practises successfully in Philadelphia, directing her efforts to the diseases of females and children, and those parts of medical

* The public prison at Providence, Rhode Island, is precisely similar.

science which are now thought to belong preëminently to the female sex. Thus the fabled Hygeia, the Goddess of Health, the daughter of Esculapius, and the grand ancestress of Hippocrates, is again called to earth!

Fairmount Water Works on the Schuylkill is a magnificent monument of American enterprise and skill, as is also the bridge of wood over the same river; the latter is a single arch three hundred and forty feet in span, which rises in the centre only twenty feet above the level of the springing. The line-of-battle ship *Pennsylvania*, built in the dockyard a few years since, was probably one of the largest and most magnificent specimens of naval architecture that then had been constructed, and is now only rivalled by the *Duke of Wellington* and her own *Susquehanna*. The dockyard of Philadelphia is only second in importance to those of New York and Boston.

As few cities can be compared to Philadelphia in point of neatness and symmetry, in the cleanliness of its streets, as well as in the regularity with which the houses and the general order of its civil affairs are arranged; so no city in the world is better supplied with water, or ought, in so far as human means are concerned, to be more exempt from infectious diseases: each house being supplied with as much water as is desired, within and without, at any moment, for eighteen shillings a year. Altogether, it is the neatest and handsomest, as well as the most orderly city of the Union; but, as may be supposed, though its commerce is very extensive, it has not the business and animation of New York. At the same time, owing to the extension of its manufacturing establishments during the last few years, its population has increased from three to five hundred thousand. It is called by some "The Bath of the United States," and is even visited by the same class of persons for the same objects as those who visit temporarily, or spend the remnant of an active and successful life in its English namesake.

Some of the shops, or, as they are here called, stores, are as beautifully fitted up, and have as inviting and tasteful an appearance as those of Regent-street and Ludgate-hill, London; while the stock appears equally extensive, substantial, and costly. Of the necessaries of life there is everywhere the most abundant supply. No market of the metropolis of England can be furnished with a better or a greater abundance of fruit and vegetables. Both the domestic and foreign trade of Philadelphia

has been greatly facilitated within the last few years, by its manufactories, and its increased maritime and inland communication.

The principal or high-street of the city is one hundred feet wide, and the others vary from fifty to eighty feet in width. The market street is the great thoroughfare, and runs through the centre of the city. All are well paved, but the footway on each side is generally formed of red bricks instead of flags. While the principal streets are distinguished by some particular tree, the cross streets are by figures.

This city,—a very unusual thing in America,—has several public squares adorned with beautiful trees and grass plots intersected by gravel walks, and ornamented with fountains, reservoirs of water, &c. In addition to these, should be mentioned its beautiful cemetery, called "Laurel Hill," on the banks of the Schuylkill.

It is not unworthy of observation in this connection, that though there are but few places of public resort in America, those that do exist,—gardens, pleasure-grounds, menageries, &c.,—are accessible to the meanest citizen and his children free of charge; the poorest and humblest of the people can also walk through the wide avenues and the spacious edifices of Washington with a feeling of possession and ownership that could be felt in no other country;—the public feel and act upon the conviction that these places are their own.

In the suburban villas of this interesting city—and the same may be said in respect to the city itself—floriculture is perhaps more nurtured and matured than in any other city of the Union. As in England, this enchanting science occupies a conspicuous place among the items of expenditure of the wealthy, as well as exercises a considerable influence over their mental habits. Many of the conservatories and gardens are beautifully and tastefully arranged,—perfectly in keeping with other characteristics of the city and its inhabitants,—and abound with the choicest collections of plants both from the temperate and semi-tropical regions of their country. Auriculas, and orchids, and lichens, from the recesses of the forest, here display their gorgeous and matchless charms of colour and form. Here, also, are seen the cactaceæ in all their varieties, and in all their wondrous loveliness, though so far removed from their more sunny habitats. Here are primroses, violets, crocusses, crimson hepaticæ, snowdrops, the sparkling von-thal tulip, the delicate China primrose, and the equally delicate Persian iris, scarlet

pelargoniums, petunias in all their varied attractiveness of colour, interspersed with the long trailing tropæolum canariensis, and the graceful grass plant like the isolepis gracilis, and trailing verbenas. Here tulips and carnations, various coloured holyhocks and roses, and camellias, irises, and amaranths, vie in the brightness of their colouring with the small, dark, pyramidal leaves of the beautiful Virginian pine, and with the peach trees, —which latter also ornament the fields. Here and there appears the feathered acacia, from whose pendant branches the little Bayah bird hangs its aerial nest, which waves aloft over the gorgeous arum, the crown-lily, and beds of flowers of almost every kind and hue. While, as evidences of the improving taste among the middle and lower classes for this most rational source of earthly gratification, many decorated windows and pretty gardens* are to be seen in the heart of the town, as well as extensive and chaste gardens and conservatories in the suburbs. This predilection for floriculture, which may be said to be common in some parts of America, operates quietly, yet powerfully, against all that is sordid and base in human character and manners. As the altars of mammon and the all-absorbing pursuits of business, for a time or at intervals, are made to give place to the shrine of Flora,—a goddess who exerts a benign dominion over the heart,—the love of natural objects must exercise a refining influence over its possessor,—it assures that home is delightful, and that it contains tranquil and humanized minds. For no one can look upon the beautiful forms of vegetable life, collected and displayed in the summer and autumn of the year, without feeling that they appeal to his intellectual nature; while with the silent eloquence of a divinely-adapted instrument, they call for his thankfulness and gratitude.

Philadelphia, as a city, is distinguished in other important respects besides those already named. It was here that the christian statesmanship of William Penn, the disinterested heroism of Washington, and the shrewd social philosophy of Franklin, displayed themselves with such splendid results; aided in the national councils, if not in the camp, by other Fathers of the Republic—Jefferson, Otis, Quincey Adams, and Hancock, Marion, and Greene, and Putnam, and Roger Sherman, and Patrick Henry.

* Auriculas and polyanthuses are much cultivated by cottagers in Pennsylvania.

It was here, in the old State-House, still standing,—and in appearance almost unaltered,—where once the broad, silky folds of the flag of England waved in the currents of the passing air, that the knell of feudal civilisation was sounded and liberty proclaimed,—that the declaration of independence was signed, and thus asserted and placed on a sure basis the civil and political rights of mankind—an act the most pregnant of forthcoming events that history records. Many of the illustrious characters, whose portraits adorn the walls of the celebrated hall, were not instrumental by their military skill or personal bravery in the battle-field in contributing to the independence of their country, but they became the honoured means of giving that independence its chief value, and have thus earned the higher praise which Cicero bestows upon the framers of wise institutions above the author of even patriotic victories. The room in which they deliberated is preserved, as said, almost without alteration—the table at which they sat, the chairs they used, the drapery that shaded the windows, the inkstand and the pens with which they signed the declaration. On the bell which was rung when the act was completed, the citizens have engraved these appropriate words: "Proclaim liberty throughout this land to all the inhabitants thereof."

Here in this city are the rooms and library of the Philosophical Society instituted by Benjamin Franklin, whose library chair is still shown in its committee-room; and which also contains, among other memorials of interest, the original painting of William Penn contracting his treaty with the Indians, and a statue of General Washington.

Franklin's resting-place is in a burial-ground known as Christ's Church Yard in this city. On entering the yard from Arch Street, attention is unavoidably directed to the humble tomb by a well-trodden path leading from the gate to the marble slab that bears the humble but eloquent inscription, "Benjamin and Deborah Franklin."

The city and state abound also in religious, educational, and literary institutions. The former is celebrated as a seat of literature and science, especially of medical science. Its University enjoys a high reputation for efficiency in all its departments; but the Jefferson Medical College and Hospitals, as already intimated, are preëminent.

True evangelical religion, as well as general knowledge and science, continue to flourish. Upwards of one hundred

and fifty places of worship adorn the city, occupied by nearly the same number of ministers of the Gospel of different denominations, besides other indirect agencies employed in disseminating its truths both from the pulpit and the press. Intellectually, the mass of the people seem decidedly in advance of the poorer classes of English cities, owing to the superior advantages in many respects enjoyed;—particularly in relation to education, which is here of a most efficient character, and generally diffused; while there is, at the same time, a demand for knowledge here which does not exist in any city or province of the Old World; and the instruction imparted is so far different in quality to that given generally in England, that it is more immediately practical and more easily attainable.

While Philadelphia has the advantage of New York in its external appearance and its conveniences of internal arrangement, it has not, as may be supposed, the business and animation of the latter city. At the same time, excepting Boston, there appears more constraint and exclusiveness in society,—more resemblance to the fashionable class in European cities, than is found in America elsewhere.

A most splendid panoramic view of the whole city and its neighbourhood is presented from the cupola or steeple of the old State House, which is now situated in about the centre of the city, and surmounted with the national star-spangled banner. The ascent is from the inside of the building, by a circuitous flight of stone steps, to the height of one hundred and thirty feet from the level of the street. The prospect from this elevation is imposing and beautiful in a high degree—a glorious panorama.

Beneath, as upon a map, extends the goodly city, in a wide and various mass of habitations, to the distance of nearly five miles on the banks of the Delaware on the east, and about three and a half miles on the banks of the Schuylkill on the west, and varying from one and a half to two miles in breadth; presenting at the first glance a confused array of brick walls and dusky roofs, but when scrutinised more closely, abounding with much of interest and magnificence.

Far in the east, the dim blue woods of New Jersey blend with the horizon; and more immediately at hand, the banks along the river lie pleasantly crowned with villages, and trees, and meadows, in all the chequered beauty of the waning summer.

The Delaware lies smiling like a sheet of tremulous silver in the unclouded sunshine. Steamboats are moving from either shore, with their wreaths of smoke ascending like offerings in the air; while the white sails are careering gracefully along its bosom; and foreign ships, with their broad ensigns displayed, are at anchor in the stream or lying alongside the animated wharfs, with their pennons streaming like light cloudlets in the breeze.

Turning to the south, the most striking features which were presented in that portion of the city are the Navy Yard, and in the distance the Delaware, which hastening on to the ocean here sweeps in a westerly direction, around a soft and placid reach of meadow scenery, broken by rich clusters of large and beautiful trees, whose verdure seems to delight in the morning smiles of heaven.

Immediately beneath, the southern prospect includes the State House and Washington Square, with their brownish yellow walks, their verdant grass plots, and their noble trees, whose leaves and blossoms wave in sweet luxuriance as if stirred into music by the bland air.

The survey of the south-west, north, and north-west, presents the combined serenity and loveliness of the quiet country and the moving splendour of the city. The blue swelling lands of Pennsylvania and Delaware, disposed in pleasant vistas and green sunny spots, lit up at intervals by gleams from both rivers, seem touched by a changeful colouring of dark and bright verdure; the darker hues sometimes deepened by the passage of some vagrant cloud, and the bright rendered still more bright by the glancing sunbeams.

Far to the south-west, Chestnut Street, which passes the north front of the State House, stretches away with its tasteful and lofty buildings, until it seems to end in a rich green meadow beyond the Schuylkill, whose waters can be seen in occasional spots shining along the verdure of the banks. From this river from the north-west to the south-west the scenes are extremely lovely.

Towards the former point, the pale yellow-gray walls of the Penitentiary rise with their turrets, and form no indifferent representation of a feudal castle, with its tiara of towers: Fairmount also is seen, with the white paling which surrounds its pure reservoir; while the meadows, encircling the country seats of the opulent citizens, with the attendant gardens and orchards,

form the visible and cunningly blended links which connect town and country.

By much the largest and most interesting part of the city lies northward of the State House. It extends, as it were, in an unbroken assemblage of bustling streets, churches, gardens, banks, and public edifices of every description for nearly three miles.

Immediately beneath the spectator, among the beautiful trees which there overshadow the walk, moves the tide of Chestnut Street beauty and fashion. To the north-east, the Delaware appears gliding by its islands of tranquil summer verdure, low trees, and emerald banks, until the blue waters seem to melt away in the reflected light of earth and sky. Its pleasant and picturesque shores are adorned with white dwellings, fields, and orchard plots. With the aid of a telescope, some of the ferries situated many miles up the river are plainly seen, as also the steamboats, which arrive and depart to and from New York and Philadelphia.

Beneath and around you extends the proud capital of Pennsylvania, basking in the sun, and sending up the monotonous hum of busy bustling existence. Beyond on either side, the distant and uprising landscape melts in soft and perfect beauty into the horizon, "while over all is spread the blue infinity of the sky, as ever and anon a slight cloud, touched with the hues of gold and amber, moves up in silent pomp into the heavens, impelled by the light air of the west, and chequering the hills and vales with pictured light and shade."

CHAPTER XXIII.

WASHINGTON. RICHMOND. BALTIMORE. CHARLESTON. SAVANNAH. PENSACOLA. MOBILE.

The city of Washington is the capital of the federal Union, as well as of the State of Columbia, but is chiefly distinguished for its being the seat of the Congressional Parliament. From its character and aspect, together with its spacious outline and rural scenery, it is ironically designated "the City of Magnificent Distances," "the City of Magnificent Designs," and "the City of the Woods." It is said that it was planned on paper before a single house was erected. The thoroughfares are arranged in parallel, rectangular, and diagonal lines. Those which run in one direction are called from the letters of the alphabet, and those that cross them are distinguished by designations no less simple and appropriate.

Washington is situated on a point of land formed by the fork of the Potomac,—the river which separates Virginia from Maryland,—and is about one hundred and twenty miles from the sea. The Capitol stands on the spot which was the place of meeting and council of the Indian tribes of Virginia when first known by Europeans.

The federal city, as seen from the highest terrace of the Capitol, presents on a clear spring or summer's morning an enchanting panorama,—the broad streets or avenues opening below through the trees, the Virginian hills laved by the mighty Potomac, the heights of George Town, and all the varied life embraced within the scene. Here are beheld splendid public buildings, immense hotels, the dwellings of fifty thousand people, church spires near and distant, the half-Norman, half-Gothic Smithsonian Institute, the unfinished Washington monument, carriages, elegantly dressed men and women in all imaginable civilised costumes, the broad stone pathway along the avenue, with a stream of water gushing by its side through a channel cut in the stone, together with the old monument bearing the

names of the most celebrated victims of the revolution,—all these rising above, or beautifully situated amidst the majestic forest trees, or the sea of verdure that surround the city!

Besides the Capitol and the House of the President, &c., described in a former chapter, the city contains several other public buildings of importance, viz., the Patent Office, Museum, Post Office, State Paper Office, and Jesuits' College. The Patent Office is conspicuous among the public edifices of the city for the beauty of its architecture. It is built of white marble, and modelled after the Parthenon at Athens. The model rooms contain twenty-three thousand models; and the patents issued amounted, in 1855, to two thousand.

Among other interesting records and relics in the Museum is the original Declaration of Independence on a large sheet of vellum, signed by the fifty-six representatives of the thirteen original States; the press at which Franklin worked when a journeyman printer in London; a specimen of the hair of each President of the United States, and their autographs; together with several relics of Washington. In the State Paper Office is the original draft of the declaration of independence, in the handwriting of Jefferson, with various corrections and erasures; Major Andre's letters before his execution; and an early number of the "Pennsylvania Gazette," published by Franklin at Philadelphia.*

The Smithsonian Institute, referred to in a former chapter, derives its name and endowment from James Smithson, Esq., of England, a son of the first Duke of Northumberland. After receiving his education at Oxford, he passed a considerable portion of his life in travelling on the continent; and he died at Genoa, June 27th, 1829. By his will he bequeathed his entire property to the United States of America, to found at Washington a college under the above designation—an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge. The United States' Treasury received this fund in September, 1838, and it then amounted to 515,169 dollars.

In the Navy Yard there are from five hundred to six hundred men in the various departments, employed in the manufacture of ordnance, marine engines, chains, cables, anchors, &c., as well as in the ordinary departments of ship building.

* See Welde's Tour of the United States and Canada.

Baltimore is the next city of importance on the Atlantic seaboard, proceeding southwards. This city is the great commercial metropolis of the State of Maryland,—the State so called from Mary, Queen of Charles I.; but Annapolis is the nominal capital. Maryland was first settled by Catholics, under Lord Baltimore, and may be regarded as the type of American activity and enterprise in its south-eastern frontier, advancing with gigantic strides in population, luxury, and refinement. It is situated on a commanding eminence, gradually rising from a branch of the Patapsco River. It is fourteen miles from Chesapeake Bay, about one hundred and eighty miles from the sea, and is one of the most elegant and symmetrically-arranged cities in the Union.

In its general aspect it resembles Boston, though its houses and streets display more regularity in their arrangement and architecture. Its trade, however, is less than that of Boston. Flour and tobacco are its principal productions; but the State occupies a respectable rank in manufactures and commerce. The beautiful Chesapeake also adds to its fame; and Baltimore is still more celebrated for its hospitality. The general welcome of old English times is still cherished by her sons, free from the ostentation of an opulence quickly achieved. Baltimore exhibits an example of social life (her negro slavery always excepted) which it would be well for her wealthier sisters to follow. The population of the city is nearly two hundred thousand, dwelling in one compact body.

Richmond is the capital of Virginia, and stands on James' River, one hundred and nine miles from its mouth: it merits no more than a passing notice. The State received its designation in honour of Queen Elizabeth, in whose reign, in the year 1584, it was first visited by Sir Walter Raleigh.

Raleigh is the metropolis of North Carolina, and Wilmington its largest and most important town.

Charleston, in South Carolina, was so called from Charles II. It is one of the few cities of America that resemble English provincial towns, or more properly, perhaps, the suburbs of interior county towns. The greater part of the houses are of brick, and many of them may be termed splendid. Both in its size, its appearance, and its trade, it is said to vie with some of the first cities in the Union. It stands on an isthmus, between two rivers, the Ashley and the Cooper. Its climate is highly insalubrious. Charleston, however, is beautiful in appearance,

resembling an assemblage of villas standing in gardens, which during all seasons of the year are brilliant with flowers and fragrant with odoriferous trees and shrubs. The aroma of orange blossoms, myrtles, jessamines, roses, and oleanders, fills the air.

The divisions of the city formed by the streets are a succession of small detached villas with their grass plots, enclosed within elegant iron palisading, shaded by beautiful flowering trees. Around the green verandahs and porticos which ornament the fronts of the houses, are seen the most beautiful crysanthemums, honeysuckles, asters, and gentians, every variety of roses, japonicas, geraniums, and olives, interspersed with amber-flowering poplars, and cypress trees pointing their tall spires to the skies, all alive with humming-birds rapidly glancing in the sun their brilliant hues of green, purple, and gold, and all melodious with the song of the mocking-bird. It may be said, indeed, that plants and flowers of almost every clime display their tints and wave their foliage in Carolina. The very roads and fields are bestrewed with choice shrubs and flowers.

Savannah is the principal city of Georgia,* but Augustine is the interior emporium of the State. "Savannah," says Miss Bremer, "is the most charming of American cities, and reminds me of the 'maiden of the green wood.'" It is, even more than Charleston, "an assemblage of villages which have come together for company." In each quarter is a green market-place, surrounded by magnificent lofty trees; and in the centre of each verdant market-place leaps up a living fountain,—a spring of fresh water gushing forth, shining in the sun, and keeping the greensward moist and cool.

Savannah may be called "the City of the Gushing Springs." There cannot be in the whole world a more beautiful city than Savannah. All nature is here beauty and romance—the realm of Pan. Georgia, with more justice than Carolina, may be called the Palmetto State, as the palmetto is here more abundant, besides many other plants and trees which indicate proximity to the tropics, exhibiting a new face of nature.† The interior of the country in different directions, amidst very considerable cultivation, is clothed with lofty woods, and adorned with clusters of white houses and churches everywhere.

* Georgia was the most recent of the thirteen original States to join the Union, and one of the most prominent in the War of Independence.

† Homes of the New World.

Florida, divided into East and West, is the flower of the Southern States; the land of which it was said by one of its discoverers, that its "delicious balmy odours made it the fountain of eternal youth." It was discovered by Ponce de Leon, in 1512, who first reduced the island of Puerto Rico. He called it Florida, either because he discovered it on Palm Sunday, or because of its gay and beautiful appearance. He met with vigorous opposition from the natives in his attempts to explore and possess it; but he finally accomplished his desires by effectually subjugating it to the crown of Spain.

Florida continued for more than two hundred years a Spanish province, and was ceded by Spain to the American Government in 1819. In 1822, East and West Florida were formed into an organised territory, not having sufficient population to entitle it to rank as a State. It adjoins the State of Georgia upon the north, and New Orleans and Alabama upon the west—thus extending from the west side of the Mississippi to the frontiers of Carolina and Georgia, and including all the islands within six leagues of the coast. The chief towns are St. Augustine in the East, and Pensacola in the West. The surface of the country is in general fertile, but mostly uncultivated, covered and even choked with a rank luxuriance almost impervious to the eye—the whole surface of the ground concealed by the thick covering of shrubs, herbs, and weeds. The land is also but slightly elevated above the sea, and may almost be considered a peninsula. It is to so great an extent overspread with stagnant lakes and ponds exhaling such unwholesome vapours, as to render it generally insalubrious. Throughout all nature the cessation of motion seems to be the signal for the work of corruption, and corruption is diffusive. In these uncultivated regions it is remarkable also how the active principle of life wastes its force in productions of inferior kinds. In addition to the impervious forests and the vast, superfluous vegetation, the whole country is alive with every species of noxious animal. Legions of ants cover the surface of the ground,—the air is often darkened with clouds of insects,—the damp forests and marshes teem with almost every offensive and poisonous creature which the power of a sultry sun can quicken into life. Some clean, cultivated spots, however, are seen at intervals in this wilderness; and it is delightful to observe the contrast between the vast level, woody masses, and the beautiful appearance which nature assumes under the forming hand of industry and art.

The soil bordering the streams is peculiarly fertile, and well suited to the production of cotton and maize; but, generally, it is considered better adapted for grazing than for agriculture. The climate is one perpetual spring. Vegetation never ceases. The trees and meadows are crowned with constant verdure. All tropical fruits and plants are produced in abundance, as also some of more northern origin. Florida, however, unlike Georgia, is not celebrated for its mineral productions; but great varieties of beautiful shells and corals, madrepores, together with other ornaments of the sea, may be gathered on its shores, which are also studded with white and brown rocks of various quality and formation.

St. Augustine, a large town built in the Spanish style, is one of the oldest of the Union, and its climate is so salubrious, and therefore so attractive to valetudinarians, that it may be said to contain a convalescent establishment. Tolahape, or Tallahassee, is the new capital. The town of St. Mark is situated on Apalache Bay. The tides on this coast are remarkable. Among other peculiarities, and especially as compared with the same phenomenon in other places within the tropics, they run here, as it is termed in nautical language, "tide and half tide," in the same manner as at Plymouth, the Needles, and the Isle of Wight, viz., three hours' flood, succeeded by three hours' ebb; next nine hours' flood, and nine hours' ebb. They do not rise, however, to an equal height in all places, nor do they run with equal rapidity in every part of the coast.

In the direction south-westward along the sea-coast, as a vessel stands into its beautiful bay, is the town of Pensacola. It is situated on a plain extending along a beach, is of an oblong form, and contains some spacious and elegant buildings. Its situation is romantic, commanding a noble prospect from the harbour. Some parts of the coast are iron-bound by rocks piled up to a great elevation, which receive the breakers of the Atlantic as they burst after their long sweep over the ocean. In other directions the sea rolls over an immense beach of bright and polished sand, and in the storms that rage there in winter throws in numerous wrecks on its enormous billows.

Still advancing along the south-western shore is the town of Mobile, in the State of Alabama. It stands at the head of a bay, and is of considerable commercial importance, although greatly inferior, in all respects, to others that have been more recently founded. It occupies the side of a hill at the mouth

of the river Tombigbee or Mobile River. It is regularly built, of an oblong form, but stands in the midst of marshes and lagoons, largely productive of fevers, agues, and numerous other diseases. Alligators and other noxious reptiles and insects are also found in the vicinity. Near the entrance of the bay are several islands, the principal of which are called Dauphin and Pelican islands. On the latter of these the soil is in some places arid, but in others covered with pine trees down to the beach.* The water is very shallow at a distance, and the bottom, which can be distinctly seen from its surface in fine weather, presents a moving picture of various animals gliding along in quick succession over the rocky points and accumulations of coral that there abound.

The principal agricultural products of the State are corn, cotton, and tobacco. Mobile itself may be said to be only a place of trade—the great mart of this celebrated cotton-growing State. Its merchants are wealthy, spending nothing in luxuries. Its exports are only second in extent to those of New Orleans. No elegant houses are here to be seen, nor equipages, but a crowded harbour. The inhabitants have no public amusements, and comparatively, it is said, very little of religion.

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* The Bayous of Alabama and Florida are celebrated for having been formerly the rendezvous of pirates.

CHAPTER XXIV.

New Orleans. State of Louisiana.—New Orleans, how situated. Its importance. General description of its appearance. Causes of its peculiar and picturesque architecture. Public places of recreation and amusement. Origin of the city. Early possession by France. Original European population. Their discouraging prospects. Various character and motley aspect of its present inhabitants. Proportion between white and black, slave and free. Principal agricultural products. Market. Levee. Places of worship. Contrast between New Orleans and the cities of the North. Comparative paucity of benevolent institutions. Vast commerce. Acquisition of wealth the all engrossing object of pursuit. Prevailing demoralization. Causes. Influence of slavery. Duelling. Desecration of the Sabbath. Climate and seasons. Infectious diseases. Remarkable public burial-place. Slave auctions. Slavery. Mississippi, its source, magnitude, extent, and grandeur. Cincinnati. Ohio river, &c.

The next principal city, as the voyager passes along the great Atlantic sea-board, after Baltimore, Charleston, and Savannah, is New Orleans, leaving to the north-east, as already signified, Pensacola in West Florida, and Mobile in Alabama, both situated in the Gulf of Mexico.

New Orleans is the capital of the State of Louisiana, and is called "the Crescent City." It is situated on the banks of the Mississippi, about one hundred miles from the mouth of the river, one thousand six hundred and forty-four miles from New York by the shortest route, and is one of the most flourishing cities of the Republic. As a commercial depôt it is unrivalled, as are also the activity and bustle on the river and on the shore. It is built on a level bed of alluvium, on a surface that slightly dips southward, which was formerly a cypress swamp, and is at high water but from two to four feet above the surface of the river. The plain on which the city is built rises only nine feet above the level of the sea. Excavations are often made far below the level of the Gulf of Mexico. To prevent inundations, a high bank, called "the Levee," has been raised, extending along the city, and reaching a considerable distance beyond it, forming an extensive and pleasant promenade.

The city stands on the left bank of the river, being a tongue of land between the Mississippi and Lake Pontchartrain, into which great inland sea the waters of the Gulf of Mexico enter.

It extends round the elbow of the stream, forming a curve nearly in the shape of a half moon, and has from this latter circumstance received the designation of "the Crescent City," as intimated above.

The city is in the form of a parallelogram, extending a distance of five miles on a line parallel with the river, and may be said to be divided into two portions, French and Anglo-American, or, politically, into three municipalities.

It was originally formed of heavy-roofed, old French and Spanish houses, and the streets were laid out as nearly as possible at right angles, running the whole length and depth of this great city. They are still in general narrow, a style which was judged by the Spaniards, and not without reason, best adapted to a warm climate. But at the same time they are always filthy; their condition is an absolute nuisance, and in wet weather they are almost impassable. There are brick causeways (the *trottoirs* of the French), but the carriage-ways are left in a state of nature.

The houses are principally constructed of wood, and the architecture of the older sections of the city is Spanish. When Louisiana came into possession of the French, the original taste in building seems to have been retained and to have preponderated for a long time.

As a security against hurricanes, as is supposed, the houses in general are but one story high; they are ornamented with green verandahs and balconies, and the principal apartments open to the street. While, however, most of the houses are built of wood, and exhibit the architecture of an earlier day, there are edifices of greater pretensions covered with stucco, adorned with verandahs, centered in plots of garden-ground, half-hidden with oleanders, magnolias, palms, aloes, and the yucca gloriosa, which, added to the orange trees disposed in rows on each side, covered throughout almost the entire year with beautiful aromatic blossoms or brilliant fruit, and these again relieved by acacias and other flowering trees and shrubs, render the appearance of this part of the city truly beautiful and picturesque. The vine and various species of convolvulus grow wild on every side; while the orange, the myrtle, and the arbutus, loading the air with perfume, are often mingled with red-blossomed aloes, the prickly cactus, and variegated hollies; together with all the varieties of rubiaceæ, euphorbiæ, and legumes.

There is something in the general air and *tout ensemble*, —the style of building, the mingling of the foliage, particularly that of the palm tree with the quaint architecture,—when seen through the vistas of the straiter streets, which calls up a confused remembrance of some of the best Spanish and French West India towns, though in some other respects they are greatly dissimilar, and more allied to towns in Flanders.

This quarter of the city is the residence of the Spanish and French part of the population. That occupied by the Anglo-Americans has but little attraction of any kind, being built in a plain, monotonous line, with but little embellishment from art or nature. The streets are wider, and the houses larger, higher, and the stores more capacious; but the internal superiority of the latter, as to comfort, has been attained at the expense of external effect.

The city now contains a considerable number of public buildings, some of which, particularly the Cathedral of the Roman Catholics and the Charles's Hotel, are of very respectable architecture. Among those of the second class are the Town-House, the Churches and Chapels, the Military and general Hospitals, the Barracks, the Custom-House, and the Theatres.

One of the hotels, called Charles's Hotel, or the French Restaurant, the property, in whole or in part, of a Frenchman, is said to be the most splendid of its kind that is to be found in the Southern States, resembling in its exterior architecture the Pantheon at Rome. When at its full complement, five hundred and sixty persons dine there at the ordinary every day, three hundred and fifty of whom sleep in the house. There are one hundred and sixty servants, and seven French cooks. All the waiters are whites—Irish, English, French, German, and American. The proprietor or manager assembles them every day at noon, when they go through a regular drill, and rehearse the service of dinner. This magnificent building was finished in 1838, and cost 600,000 dollars. The gentlemen's dining-room is one hundred and twenty-nine feet by fifty feet, and is twenty-two feet high, having four ranges of tables capable of accommodating five hundred persons. The ladies' dining-room measures fifty-two feet by thirty-six. There are, altogether, three hundred and fifty rooms, which might be made to contain, with little inconvenience, between six and seven hundred people. The front consists of a projecting portico, supported by six fine Corinthian columns resting upon a rustic basement. The whole

is surmounted by a large dome forty-six feet in diameter, and crowned by a beautiful Corinthian turret. This dome is the most conspicuous object in the whole city. Viewed at a distance, the whole building seems to stand in the same relation to New Orleans as St. Paul's to London. The furnishing of the establishment cost 150,000 dollars. The cooking at this mammoth hotel or boarding-house is performed by a steam engine and other apparatus. The charge for board and lodging is three dollars per day; but there are others in New Orleans, scarcely inferior in all the requisites for respectable inmates, where they could be accommodated for about, or even for less than half that amount.

There are several other Hotels in the city of considerable size, but all conducted in a style far inferior to that of the French Restaurant.

There are in this city six public squares laid out with taste, filled with the luxuriant foliage of the South. Magnolias, myrtles, oleanders, jessamines, the fragrant clematis, with roses and flowering trees and shrubs of endless variety, flourishing, it may almost be said, in all the affluence and magnificence of the tropics; while here and there, from amid the masses of verdure, are seen towering the cypress, the ceiba, and the fig, some of them spreading their vast arms over the lower tribes of vegetation, and clothed with heavy draperies of parasite orchis, and innumerable other parasitic plants, creeping from tree to tree, or flinging their long tendrils above a hundred feet from the ground. The most magnificent, as well as the most abundant, of all the trees here, is the live-oak, an evergreen, from the branches of which, as from the ceiba, are seen depending mosses and other boreals hanging down in rich festoons. These pendant, grey mosses upon the heavy branches, particularly when the trees have been planted with any regularity, produce an almost unimaginably picturesque effect. From all these circumstances, the city wears an appearance of comfort, and convenience, and beauty, seldom enjoyed amidst a dense population, and very unusual in American cities in general.

New Orleans was originally founded by a small number of Spaniards in 1719, and in 1782 remained little more than a village, containing only about 4,000 inhabitants, being injured in its trade by the monopoly of the Spanish rule. In 1801 it was conceded to France, who allowed the Americans to use it as a place of deposit for marketable produce. Through the con-

summate policy of Jefferson, it was at length purchased by the United States Government for 15,000,000 dollars, and thus became annexed to the Union, having its own provincial government, and sending its own representatives to the general Congress. At this period (1803), the population of the whole State numbered no more than 8,000 souls, who were almost entirely French and Spanish.

The present population, considering the infancy of its existence under the Government of America, is amazing, being now upwards of 100,000; and it continues to augment with such astonishing rapidity, as to justify the expectation of its becoming in a few years the greatest emporium of commerce in the whole of the New World, so admirably is its situation adapted to the purpose. As New York is called the London, so New Orleans is called the Liverpool of the United States; and it must also be to the South what New York is to the North and centre of the Union. At the same time it has communication with New York and the more northern ports, both by the Atlantic seaboard and by means of canals which connect Ohio with Lake Erie and Lake Erie with the Hudson; thereby commanding a portion of the commerce of the whole Eastern and Western, as well as of the Northern and Southern States. Thus holding the keys of the whole West, and commanding the commerce of 20,000 miles of river navigation, as well as along the whole Atlantic coast, it has during the last few years leaped into prodigious activity and life. No longer since than 1812 the first steamboat arrived from Pittsburg, when the trade of the place commenced. Enterprise increased at a rate unprecedented. In twenty years it contained 50,000 inhabitants, and in ten succeeding years the population was doubled.

The cotton and sugar of Arkansas, Missouri, and Louisiana, —the grain of the vast fertile Western States,—the lead of Illinois,—the peltry of the Oregon,—with all their active trains of owners and supercargos, pour into the city continuously during eight months of each year.

Enterprise and industry, stimulated to incredible activity by brilliant success, has thus been richly rewarded; whilst wealth and the means of subsistence naturally and speedily augmented the population. The inland trade has become immense,—from fifteen thousand to twenty thousand flat boats, fifty or sixty steam-boats, and a vast mass of steam vessels of extraordinary tonnage, may be seen as though constantly lying along its

Levee. During the ten years between 1835 and 1844, the average receipts of duties at the Custom House were 905,196 dollars; and in the eight years from 1845 to 1852 inclusive, the average was 1,048,298 dollars. There has also been, as a consequence of the prosperity of New Orleans, a remarkable increase in the trade of the other Gulf ports, including Mobile, Pensacola, St. Mark, Apalachicola, and the ports of Texas. Nor must the fact be omitted as to the facilities of travelling, that the advantages afforded by the conveyance of passengers and goods, as also the comparative inexpensiveness of both, are immense. A passage from New Orleans to Louisville, a distance of fifteen hundred miles, is accomplished in four days, at the cost of a few dollars.

It may not be irrelevant to add, that those States have progressed most rapidly in which improvements in the accommodation afforded for traffic and locomotion have been most vigorously carried out. The only States, indeed, which show a decline in population are Missouri, and one or two of the slave States, in which the formation of railroads and other public works and facilities of intercommunication have been neglected. The plantations of these States, (as may be said of the Southern States generally,) which once attested the operations of human skill and industry, will soon be nothing but a luxuriant wilderness, inhabited by the brutalised descendants of a race of slaves.

The varied character of the inhabitants of New Orleans, both in personal appearance and dress, adds greatly to the picturesque effect which the city presents to a stranger. The southern planter, with his broad-brimmed panama, or neatly plaited grass hat; the clean and neatly apparelled American native tradesman; the long-haired French creole, with his black tresses waving over his shoulders; the tall, dark Spaniard; the unpolished Irishman; the gaily clothed people of colour; with here and there Sclaves, Chinamen, and Polynesians; and lastly, the slave population—white, black, yellow; together with indigenous red men,—exhibiting almost every variety of shade of colour, from the jet black through all conceivable transitions to white almost as pure as that of Europeans. These are peculiarities calculated to create an interest in ethnological facts and disquisitions unknown in Europe; while probably no city in the world, in an equal number of human beings, presents greater contrasts of national manners and language.

In the two last respects, what assimilation exists is principally with the French. Many of the Creole ladies are really beautiful, both as to person and figure,—light and graceful,—with fine teeth, and eyes large, dark, and lustrous. The native ladies generally, however, are without energy, animation, or vivacity. Few of these can speak English, and still fewer of the slaves. The latter are said to speak the French language, but it is a kind of *patois*, unlike anything ever heard in France.

The proportion between the whites and men of mixed cast and blacks is nearly equal. As a nation the French, among the whites, are considered the most numerous and wealthy; next the Anglo-American; and thirdly, the natives of the British Islands. There are but few Spaniards and Portuguese in New Orleans; but Italians, with individuals of all the civilised nations of Europe, are scattered among the population.

The principal agricultural products are sugar-cane, maize, rice, cotton, indigo, and tobacco, with various textile and oleaginous plants, wines, and tropical fruits. Taking into consideration the amazing variety of the produce, together with the great diversity of the character and dress of the populace as here exhibited on a market day, a more curious spectacle can hardly be conceived. Domestic animals, many of them of novel descriptions to a stranger, together with both European and tropical fruits and vegetables of great variety and of almost all kinds, are here seen in the greatest profusion. Parrots of diverse size and plumage; various beautifully coloured birds in cages; gigantic herons; wild ducks and geese, of all sizes and colours; pigeons, owls; with squirrels, white and grey; fish of indescribable varieties and colours, such as are never seen in European waters; together with cray, and other varieties of shell-fish, equally new and indescribable, are here found *ad infinitum*.

The Levee outside the market is crowded with itinerant venders of many races,—English, Irish, Germans, Spanish, Negroes, and Indians,—exhibiting all their characteristic phases of manners, customs, and language, and surrounded by symbols of the products of their own labour.

The market here, as always within the tropics, is opened with the earliest dawn of day, and may be considered as over by seven or eight o'clock in the morning. The meat is killed during the preceding night, and brought to the stalls in a state that may be properly termed yet warm with life. Even with this necessary,

though disagreeable haste, unless it be cooked almost immediately, it will, during the hottest weather, turn green and putrify in the course of a few hours. At any time, as in the West Indies, to purchase more than is needful for the day's consumption is useless, as all beyond what is necessary for the day is wasted. It will be easily conceived, therefore, that economical housewives, as in some places in England, though for other reasons, have often to test their ingenuity to devise the most ingenious dinners which will not leave any cold perishable viands for the following day.

Although there are numerous places of religious worship in New Orleans, belonging to different religious denominations, whose pulpits are mostly occupied by pious and respectable ministers of the gospel, yet such is the influence of slavery and other related circumstances in a city so rapidly formed, and of such diverse and rude materials, that in morals and religion, as well as in the virtues and accomplishments of social life, it presents on the whole a very different picture to the cities of the North.

There are some benevolent institutions and schools in the city; but they are not numerous, and but a few are in a healthy, flourishing condition. The schools, however, are said to have recently improved, teachers, both male and female, having come hither from the North-eastern States, bringing with them that educational life, and benevolence, and energy, which so evidently distinguish the descendants of the sturdy Puritans.

Institutions for higher intellectual and moral culture appear to be in little demand. There are no ennobling artistic enjoyments here. New Orleans is beyond everything else a business and trading city. The object of all appears to be to amass wealth, and to retire with it to a more congenial atmosphere and home. They have bound the negro slave, and the negro slave has bound them,—preventing them from developing education, and every good institution that gives strength and greatness to a nation; if it has not obliterated the affections that are necessary to constitute a home.

And the chief causes of the prevailing demoralisation it is as little difficult to conjecture. It is traceable to the same source; it arises, principally, there can be little doubt, from the existence and operation of slavery, as the state of society is in some respects similar in almost all the Southern States where this enormity exists.

Such a result is perfectly natural; as slavery, by presenting human nature in a state of moral debasement, and affording constant opportunities for the exercise of uncontrolled dominion, must lead insensibly to impatience of contradiction and irritability of temper—to a frequent display, indeed, of all the worst passions of the depraved heart.

Neither their sickly climate, nor their familiarity with sudden death, nor their mild landscapes, have softened the spirits of the slave-holders, or lulled their nervous irritability. "The whole commerce between master and slave," says Mr. Jefferson, himself a slave-holder, "is a perpetual exercise of the most boisterous passions, the most unremitting despotism, on one part, and of degrading submission on the other. The parent storms, the child looks on, catches the lineaments of wrath, puts on the same airs in the circle of the smaller slaves, gives a loose to his worst of passions; and thus nursed, educated, and daily exercised in tyranny, cannot but be stamped by it with odious peculiarities. The man must be a prodigy who can retain his manners and morals undepraved by such circumstances."*

Duelling is awfully prevalent in New Orleans. Only a few years since, several persons called "gentlemen" arrived at Natchez, from Alexandria, in Louisiana, to settle some personal differences long standing by personal combat. Two of them had a duel, and were about leaving the ground unharmed when others arrived and insisted on a renewal of the fight. A desperate contest ensued, during which two of the number were killed, and two dangerously wounded. And such occurrences are common along the whole shores of the Mississippi, and in all the States where the influence of slavery is felt, as well as at New Orleans. Bowie knives and pistols constitute a part of the equipment of those who frequent the gambling hells with which the city of New Orleans abounds. The state of society in regard to the last-named atrocities may be in some degree conceived by the following announcement in a late American paper:—"For the first time in the annals of Louisiana a duellist has been convicted of manslaughter. The case was a very horrible one, the combatants having fought with knives; but the jury recommended the culprit to mercy."

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* Jefferson's Notes on Virginia. Vide also Featherstonehaugh.

That sacred day which is set apart in other States of the Union for the rest of the body and the refreshment of the soul, is here shamefully dishonoured and profaned. With multitudes, especially the Catholics, Sunday is the great day for amusements of all kinds. Shops are open,—the markets display unusual attractions,—and the sounds of merriment and music are heard in every street. In the morning, a very considerable part of the population are seen at mass, and the Cathedral is crowded with people of all colours in their best and gayest attire; but in the after parts of the day and in the evening, their time and attention are transferred to the occupations of worldly pleasure, or they are found in the pandemoniums of profligacy and dissipation. It is, however, but just to say, that a stranger may learn something from the great difference exhibited between the Catholics and Protestants in their treatment of slaves and poor in their places of public worship.

Vice, in every form which a diabolical invention can devise, is become habitual to a large portion of the community, especially in the dregs of the French and American population which here find a refuge. Every degree of profligacy is exhibited that is degrading to the individual and injurious to society.

Unwholesome as are the material elements by which the atmosphere is tempered, New Orleans contains a malaria yet more dreadful than its swamps, tainting and poisoning the whole social state and inner life.

The feelings prevalent among what are termed the higher or more aristocratic portion of the community, in points of violated morality, resemble those formerly current in the fashionable world in Europe, only being less fastidious. The stigma attached to profligacy and licentiousness is so slight, that often people do not hesitate to accuse one another of laxity of conduct on the most fallacious grounds; and the utmost purity of life and correctness of manners sometimes prove insufficient to secure even a female from being suspected of errors and levities which are alike repugnant to her principles and to her inclinations.

Although situated so near the glowing line, the seasons in Louisiana admit of spring and summer as in Europe; but the winter seasons are much milder. The nights are uniformly temperate. Droughts are common, and thunder-storms and rains are frequent and excessive. The advantages of New Orleans, as to climate, are great. At some seasons of the year

it is delicious, but its disadvantages are proportionate to its benefits, for the district is awfully subject to yellow fever and other infectious diseases. Sometimes the whole city appears under the influence of the former dreadful epidemic. At no season of the year is it healthy. The exhalations from the Mississippi, as well as from the vast swamp by which it is surrounded, taint the atmosphere continually. The variation at different seasons is only in degree, while on every inundation, when the river runs to a higher level than the town, the putrid swamp is ever ready to ooze through the thin layer of rank soil above it, and thus spread infection on every hand.

The rainy seasons, it may be supposed, as is the case generally within the tropics, are the most sickly of the year, from the abundance of the exhalations which then form a kind of faint vaporous bath, from which only those who live in apartments the highest from the ground are least in danger, the atmosphere growing gradually clearer and purer in proportion to the ascent.

This awful scourge, the yellow fever, however, though partially caused by the malaria of the swampy ground on which the city stands, and the frequent inundations occasioned by the bursting of the Levee, or embankments, is not so much attributable to these causes as to the intemperance that prevails, to the quality of the food that is consumed, and to the want of cleanliness, on the part of the lower classes, both as to houses and persons. "An effectual remedy of these evils," says an eminent medical practitioner of the city, "is cleanliness, which would contribute more to secure cities and countries in general from pestilence than all the quarantine regulations that were ever framed."

From what has thus been said it must not be supposed that New Orleans, morally and physically, is without any redeeming features. It is neither without its natural attractions, as a place of residence, nor destitute of the charms of social life. Amidst much that is forbidding and corrupt in general society, there is much that may be pronounced refined and unexceptionable. There are many elements of good in real, powerful, practical operation in the public mind; and evil influences decrease in proportion to the wealth and numerical strength possessed by the resident North-eastern Anglo-American.

One of the most interesting objects to be seen in New Orleans by an European stranger is the public Cemetery, situated about two miles and a half from the city, where the dead are

buried in water, or in tombs above the ground, the tombs and graves consisting of whole streets and squares. It appears like what it really is, "a place to bury strangers in," strongly contrasting with the cemeteries of the other States,—"no trees, no grass-plots, no fountains, nothing green, no flowers, nothing which testifies of life, of memory, of love. All is dead, stony, desolate, and no back ground, except the clear blue heaven."*

The most revolting spectacles beheld in New Orleans are the slave auctions. They occur every day in the City Exchange, and the man who wants an excuse for his misanthropy will nowhere discover better reason for hating and despising his species than at this spectacle of fiends in the shape of humanity.

"God of Goodness! God of Justice!" exclaimed a spectator of some recent tragedy perpetrated in the heart of this city, "there must be a future state to redress the wrongs of this, or I am almost tempted to say there must be no future state and no God."

"Mothers of New England!"—I will add, mothers of England! of Jamaica!—"christians and philanthropists of every sex and name, teach your children to hate slavery, to pity its victims! Never cease your prayers nor your efforts until the blighting curse is driven from the world!"

"While almost every country in the civilised world can respond to the proud boast of the English common law, that 'the moment a slave sets his foot on her soil he is free,'" says an enlightened, right-hearted American traveller in Europe, "I do not hesitate to say that slavery stands as a dark blot on our nation-character. There it will not admit of any palliation; it stands in glaring contrast with the spirit of free institutions; it belies our words and our hearts; and the American who would be most prompt to refute any calumny upon his country withers under this reproach, and writhes with mortification when the taunt is hurled at the otherwise stainless flag of the free Republic."

Even some planters speak of it as a noxious exhalation, with which the whole atmosphere is poisoned, and that the fear is that it will only be eradicated by some terrible convulsion—that the sword is already suspended. By the perpetuity of this unnatural and revolting system Americans lay under the impu-

* Homes of the New World.

tation of being petty despots and tyrants, who "call that freedom when themselves are free." In their conduct with regard to slavery they deny the first principles of republicanism, and descend to the morals of common filibusterers, pirates, or buccaneers. Slavery involves the slave trade, and the slave trade, under the laws of civilised nations, involves piracy.

As if in mockery of the unhappy victims of this accursed system, and really in condemnation of the hypocrisy of the perpetrators of the atrocities that system produces, often in the very purlieus of the inhuman auction-mart, where floats the "star-spangled banner," as well as from the haunts of merriment and dissipation, or from the shipping in the harbour,—wafted to every part of the city by the evening breeze,—is heard the loud chorus of the national song, "The land of the Brave and the land of the *Free!*"

But let us turn from these depressing features of the scene before us, and consider the brightest parts of the picture. And foremost amongst these is that parent of commerce and wealth to New Orleans—the magnificent Mississippi.*

The flow of a noble stream is at all times an interesting object; but when its banks are occupied by long ranges of imposing and handsome buildings, shaded by palm-groves, and enlivened by boats and vessels of all descriptions, with all the other signs of a vast and prosperous traffic, the *coup d'œil* formed by such a combination can hardly fail of producing a very animated picture: and such is the view of the Mississippi from any one of the many points upon its banks from whence a spectator can command the whole space occupied by the city. A more vivid scene, indeed, can hardly be conceived than that presented by the forest of masts and steamboats that crowd the crescent outline of New Orleans.

Below the city towards the Gulf of Mexico a vast forest extends on either side as far as the eye can reach, opened here and there by the axe of the settler, where the scene is enlivened by the happy-looking rustic homesteads, and the more village-like establishments of the planter. Still farther on, the river disembogues itself into the Gulf of Mexico, through three mouths, or "passes," as they are called by sailors, which throw a wide and deep volume of fresh water far into the ocean wholly untainted by the saline matter of the heavier fluid through

* In the Algonquin language, "Missi Sepo," or Great River.

which it flows. The whole extent between these passes is occupied with islands and shoals, on which countless pelicans assemble, and monstrous alligators disport themselves.

The river at New Orleans is about eight or nine hundred yards or three-quarters of a mile broad, increasing rather than diminishing towards Louisville. Its greatest depth is twenty-three fathoms; the general velocity of the current has been estimated at about two nautical miles per hour. The navigation of the river is difficult and dangerous, owing to the perpetual shifting of the sands, and the vast and ever-increasing accumulation of islands formed by trees and earthy deposits brought down by the stream. Sometimes large islands entirely disappear; at other times they attach themselves to the main land; or, rather, the intervals are filled up by myriads of logs and masses of coral cemented together with mud and rubbish.

About eighteen miles from St. Louis, and four miles below the city, the Missouri and Mississippi rivers blend their giant currents, forming a mighty confluence; and for several miles down the stream of the latter, can be seen on one side the dark, pulpy, yellowish, muddy, angry waves of the Missouri, and on the other, the pure crystal waters of the Upper Mississippi, both having swept alternately through beautiful meadows, ancient hoary lime-stone bluffs, marshes and deep forests, swelled in their advancing march by the beautiful waters of the Ohio, and the tributes of a hundred minor streams.

These gigantic rivers flow side by side for a considerable distance without entirely commingling, until, at last, the earth-laden tide from the far-west gains the mastery, and thence united in one wide, dark, turbid, and perpetual torrent, the "Father of Waters" rolls his accumulated floods in lonely majesty through the deltas formed by the diluvium of his own waters to the Gulf of Mexico, and thence far onward into the Atlantic Ocean.

No thinking mind can contemplate this mighty and resistless swollen current, as if bearing away the superfluous waters of the world, sweeping, in proud course from point to point, curving round its bends of leagues in extent, rolling in silence through the dark forests, watering a tract of country containing millions of square miles, extending from the cold climate of Canada to the sunny regions of the tropics,—no one, I repeat, can contemplate this vast phenomenon of nature without feeling that he has before him one of the most striking instances of the sublime that the whole world affords.

This vast river, which in its greatest extent for navigation, is eleven hundred miles in length,—a traveller from its primal source of more than three thousand one hundred and sixty miles,* that is, more than two-thirds of the diameter of the globe,—nine hundred yards in medial breadth, and draining a far larger tract of country than any other river on our globe, is estimated at one million square miles in surface, and, in one feature, resembles the Nile of the Old World, as it rises periodically, and then suddenly inundates the whole vast magnificent valley through which it flows. It further opens a maritime communication with all the fertile countries through which it passes, and even, as already intimated, with Lake Erie and the Hudson—reaching Lake Erie by the Ohio, and the Hudson by canals.

"It has been the fashion of travellers," says Capt. Hamilton, "to talk of the scenery of the Mississippi as wanting in grandeur and sublimity. Most certainly it has neither. But there is no scenery on earth more striking. The dreary and pestilential solitudes, untrodden save by the foot of the Indian; the absence of all living objects, save the huge alligators which float past, apparently asleep on the drift-wood, and an occasional vulture, attracted by its impure prey on the surface of the waters; the trees with a long and hideous drapery of pendent moss floating on the wind, and the giant river rolling onward the vast volume of its dark and turbid waters through the wilderness, forming the features of the most dismal and impressive landscape on which the eye of man ever rested. Rocks and mountains are fine things, undoubtedly, but they could add nothing to the sublimity of the Mississippi.

"Pelion might be piled on Ossa, Alps on Andes, and still to the perceptions and heart of the spectator, the Mississippi would be alone. It could brook no rival, and it could find none."†

It seems scarcely proper to close this sketch of the principal cities of the United States without a reference to Cincinnati the "Queen City of the West," though now almost rivalled by Chicago, in Illinois, and Milwaukee, in Wisconsin. It is situated on the banks of the Ohio, ascending that river from the Mississippi.

The town of Cincinnati in the year 1800 contained a population of 700 inhabitants; in 1840 its population was 47,000; in

* By some geographers said to be 4,400 miles in length from its remotest source.
† Capt. Hamilton, p. 334.

1850 it was 116,000. It is built on the right bank of the Ohio river, and is about a thousand miles from New York and Boston, or, as distances should now be reckoned, sixty-seven hours. It stands upon a double platform gently rising from the river, and is again surrounded by a wall of lofty and picturesque hills that appear immediately beyond its streets. Some of the streets run up the sides of these hills, "and in them, I was informed," says a traveller, "resides the 'upper crust' of the society in Cincinnati." The broad stream of the Ohio circles round the base of the mountains and of the town, and two suburbs containing about 20,000 inhabitants rise on the opposite bank,—the Slave State of Kentucky.

Floating wharves are adapted to the rise and fall of the river, so that merchandise can at all times be landed and embarked without difficulty. Steam boats line its quays and cover its waters. About one hundred and fifty are owned by merchants of the town. The imports of Cincinnati are worth 50,000,000 of dollars, and her exports 50,000,000 of dollars a year; and upwards of two hundred steam engines are at work in flour mills, saw mills, cotton factories, and type foundries.

Hog slaughtering and pork packing is the most important of all the trades of Cincinnati. They have slaughtering and packing houses which enable them to dispose of twenty thousand hogs per day; but as the weather necessarily restricts the season to about twelve weeks, and as there must be unpropitious days even in these, they can seldom provide more than four hundred thousand hogs a year.

But the "Queen City of the West" is not merely a commercial place; it is a seat of literature also. There are published here eleven daily, twenty-five weekly newspapers, and six monthly periodicals. Book business, printing, and stereotyping, are done here with beauty and neatness.

Nor is religion forgotten by the inhabitants of Cincinnati. Sixty churches are devoted to different modes of worship. Of these, twelve are Catholic, two are Jewish, and four are Episcopal; the others are dedicated to the promulgation of what in England are called the different modes of dissent. In nine churches the services are performed in German.

"A busy, smoking, reeking place Cincinnati thus very necessarily appeared to us," continues the traveller from whom this description is chiefly quoted. "During the first morning walk the sun was very hot; and I found the air impregnated with an

oppressive odour which I could not understand. We returned to the Barnet House to dinner at two o'clock. About one hundred people were seated in the dining room; the women were, as a matter of course in America, very stylishly and flauntingly dressed; many of the men sat down in brown Holland frocks."*

* The Wabash.

CHAPTER XXV.

CAUSES OF THE RAPID ADVANCEMENT AND PROSPERITY OF THE UNITED STATES.—Her previous oppression by the Mother Country. Qualities of government. Freedom of commerce, of speech, and action. Religious as well as civil and political liberty. Exemption from old habits and prejudices. Superior enterprise and energy of her people. Quality of emigrants. Freedom of institutions. Illustration in the establishment of San Francisco, Wisconsin, Chicago, and Ohio. Influence of commerce. Facilities of locomotion. Stimulus supplied to agricultural labour. Prevalence of small farms and number of small proprietors. Advantages as contrasted with customs in England and her colonies. Superior domestic economy. General self-reliance and independent spirit of the people. Great economy of the Government. Its enterprising spirit and forethought in regard to its public works. Generous aid to public patriotic undertakings. Prevalence of education in the Northern and Middle States. Liberal character of the plan of school institutions, and of the instruction given. Its direct practical tendency and palpable advantages.

It is no easy matter to penetrate the ultimate design of Providence in this mighty donative of territory and power to the American people. But it is open to us to enquire into the causes of their greatness as a nation, and of their rapid strides in material and religious wealth, and happiness, and prosperity, under a form of Government so different from those of the ancient continent. And we shall find that no inconsiderable degree of her importance and progress may be traced to her Government. Its nature and some of its advantages have already been described. It is only necessary to exhibit its beneficial working and peculiar adaptations as promotive of the progress of society.

The constitution of American society being founded not on alleged *duty*, as in England,—whence feudalism attained its strength,—but on natural *right;* the principle that now exercises a growingly perceptible influence in the destiny of nations, was the soil in which American institutions were rooted, and out of which they have so vigorously grown.

Civil liberty was not regarded as freedom from restraint. Men, it was considered, might be wisely and benevolently controlled, and yet be free. The spirit of subordination, indeed, so far from being inconsistent with liberty, is inseparable from

it. It is essential to liberty that men should be subject to the restraints of law. And where this restraint is limited to a wise regard to the best interests of the State, there men are free. True liberty results from the most perfect subjection of every soul to the empire of law, and therefore is not that liberty which is sought by *illuminées* and atheists.

Republicanism in America, contrariwise to that which resulted from the revolutions of France, learned the art of constructing a self-maintaining power combining effective rule and universal sanction. Nor is it, like the Republicanism of the French, founded upon a specious philosophy,—upon the propagation of false theories of the rights of man, and visionary definitions of natural liberty; but upon enlightened knowledge, such as is now spreading over all classes of society.

The great founders of the Constitution framed their plans and pursued their measures in the belief that there *was* a superintending Providence; they recognised and acted upon the conviction, repudiated by the French, that a gracious, wise, and all-powerful God, *had* to do with the dispensation of human affairs. The superstructure of their commonwealth was based on firm faith in a divine revelation.

The relation of the people to the federal constitution of the United States also is very different to the systems of equality established at the revolution in France. The former provided for elementary diversities, and recognised local rights on a par with those of the general community; whereas in France there was no such distinction, and everything alike was placed at the disposal of the Central Government.

All Government offices in America are filled by the people at the nomination of the head of the State, who is himself chosen of the nation, and thus the gradations of a centralised beaurocracy overspread the country, with an Executive at its head, and the people a level mass of twenty or thirty millions at its feet, without any nobles or local magnates to influence public opinion. In a word,—and this was the rock on which they split,—the French Republic recognised the principle, that the people existed for the Government; the American, that the Government exists for the people.*

Thus the tiny sucker of the good old English oak has grown into a vigorous and wide-spreading tree, rivalling the parent

* Dublin University Magazine, January, 1854.

stock; while successions of abortive germs of the Gallic plant of liberty have perished in the heat from which they sprung. The American Republic is the only real Republic that ever existed in the world; the others were only impracticable democracies.

The Americans alone, of all the great Republics that have ever existed,—Greece, Phœnicia, Carthage, and Etruria, as well as Rome,—have succeeded in solving the great problem of permanent justice: first, to defend all parts of each community from all other parts of it; and, secondly, to defend the whole community against violence from without. In the Republics of ancient Greece in particular, each State was internally sovereign; in a majority of which the cardinal idea established itself, that public law was the only legitimate ruler in the State, and that, accordingly, all magistrates elected to their office were servants of the law from which they derived their sacredness. The deliberate and formal consent of the community enacted laws, whether fundamental or of secondary importance; but the mode of collecting and determining this consent varied in different States.*

It is the democratic element in the American system which elevates the character and promotes the aspirations of the multitude,—which gives freedom to the subject and stability to the State,—which makes the masses endure adversity with a higher courage than other people, and at the same time animates them in times of prosperity with a vigour nowhere else to be excelled.†

Montesquieu, in his "Spirit of Laws," says, "That the principle of a Republic is virtue," which he defined politically to be, "respect for the laws, and a love of our country." In this sense virtue is found nowhere so strong as in the United States, —it is the essence of the Republic.

Her prosperity is thus in part owing to her freedom,—to the recognition of the principle that every citizen has a right to his person and property, and to its control and management,—to the power of each individual to act as he deems best for his own advantage, unshackled by any laws but those that administer to the general benefit.

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* Eclectic Review.

† The frightful tales related by travellers of Lynch law and summary justice inflicted by excited mobs, are occurrences peculiar to territories bordering on civilisation.

A nation swayed by the stern spirit of despotism exhibits in its character and condition all the effects of its miserable thraldom; while a country blessed with that degree of freedom which is adapted to the social state, and ruled by equal and just laws, which no sovereign will except that of the people, can either abrogate or suspend, displays at once its prosperity and elevation,—its virtue and happiness,—the benign influence of its civil constitution.

The system of government adopted by the American Republic began to work with a beneficial energy and harmony from its commencement. Every man soon felt his independence, and venerated the spirit by which it was secured. Every man soon felt that everything dear to him was connected with the continuance of liberty.

At the same time, such is the leniency of their laws, that they have not only given new, and permanent, and inestimable advantages to civilization, and promoted the moral and social welfare of the people, but they have invested power with its best security, by placing it on the imperishable foundation of enlightened justice, by vanquishing and wresting from legislative barbarism the weapons of extermination, and laying them down at the feet of rejoicing humanity.

With other privileges enjoyed, there was an utter absence of all restrictions imposed on the accumulations of industry and wealth,—of all enactments that tended to keep down the industrious habits of the people. They no longer suffered embarrassment from antique usages. They were no longer content to breathe the atmosphere of the past, and remain surrounded by influences that ought to have been before discarded for something newer. For under the government of the mother country there was no new development, most of the conditions and usages belonged to the traditions of the mediæval era.

Life and vigour were now diffused through every department of the Government, and every artery and fibre of the Republic. The air of freedom so braced the moral constitution in every department of society, that it rejoiced in the high and strong pulsations of robust health. All began to work for the community, but each in his own path, and according to the dictates of his own individual will. There were errors and evils in the incipient workings of this form of government; and instances of riotous proceedings have occurred when the will of the mass has been opposed; but the agents of these outbreaks have

invariably found themselves the greatest sufferers,—have been to a considerable degree convinced of their error, and been deterred from their repetition,—they were the errors of inexperience and ignorance, and led directly to their own cure,—they were the natural accompaniments of a change from restraint to indulgence, and were sure to pass away like a summer storm,—they were not the symptoms of any permanent distemper of the body of the nation, but merely the seasoning fever of men new to the climate of liberty.

Composed of so many heterogeneous elements, it can hardly be a matter of surprise if the social relations existing among some of the newly formed communities of the present day are such as render difficult the unity of governmental action, and even to render it liable to be occasionally stimulated to violent and destructive results; but it is one of the advantages of democracy, that when an evil becomes evident to popular opinion, it tends to bring its own cure. The Government of the United States carries within itself the seeds of recuperation, requiring no forcible revolution. The ballot-box is all that is necessary to effect its improvement in accordance with the progress of the times.

It has been the policy of America to relax, not restrain,—to throw aside the enactments that exist solely upon the supposed merit of their antique virtues, and to leave men to act according to the necessities of the conjuncture. In proportion as this has been done, she has continued to increase in population, in riches, and in piety—the sole elements of her national and spiritual power.* National improvement has always been identified with the growth of civil and religious liberty. There are no artificial fetters thrown on industry in any way or in any shape—nothing to impede the action of wealth and enterprise. A well employed and a well paid population is the great source of wealth. No laws of men are made to counteract the greater laws of universal beneficence, restraining the blessings which flow from unrestricted freedom from the apprehension of evils that are never likely to arise.

Here there are no absurd laws to tie up the hands of industry, as by the Poor Laws' Commission Bill of England, or the Law of Settlement, which, irrespective of the encouragement it actually gives to idleness, confines the range of labour within a

* Eclectic Review.

certain circle. Here a labourer or an artisan of any kind knows that if under any circumstances he cannot find employment where he was born, or where he first plants his foot as an emigrant, he can seek it elsewhere, without the danger of being subject to that degradation of personal misery which accompanies temporary poverty in Europe.

As in England, constitutional liberty and free speech have been some of the chief sources of America's gigantic progress, and her no less wondrous strength. These are the cause of her superiority to despotic nations of greater antiquity,—it is the light which dispersed ignorance, and under whose warm fostering care knowledge flourished and spread,—it arrested superstitious virulence,—it has been the fountain of that light through which it seems ordained mankind should be evangelised.

America, by being greatly free from prejudices and habits of the past that have no foundation in reason, accumulates the elements of her power without hindrance, and grows unceasingly, her territorial superfices being so extensive. Where there is intolerant, overbearing rule, there is small progress in knowledge; but where freedom reigns in opposition to despotism, there is an increase of true religion, and riches increase along with it with amazing rapidity.

A despotism of whatever kind destroys itself,—it paralyses all advantages of nature,—of popular capability and of individual energy. The genius of prosperity goes not with arbitrary will, —it is republican,—it must be free to breathe,—it is a "chartered libertine." Whatever cramps mental development is inimical to it—as is every faith that resigns its owner's soul into the keeping of a fallen fellow-creature. Hence, too, no country exclusively Catholic in the present age of the world cuts a figure in Protestant States; in which religion is made an affair between man and his Maker, and not between man and man.*

It is by the existence of freedom and free institutions, more than by natural advantages of country, that industry and a bold spirit of adventure are stimulated, that civilization is extended to distant lands, and man reclaimed from barbarism

A splendid proof of the *savoir faire* in self-government is given at this moment in the States organization of California. During a few years the wildest adventurers from all nations of the earth rushed thither in the delirium of the gold fever. But

* Eclectic Review.

the best of the people have banded together, organized and maintained the observance of law and order; and California is rapidly advancing to a population of 200,000 souls, and has now asked its place as a fully competent State in the circle of the great free States of the Union. Even the Chinese, who hastened to California by thousands, settle themselves down to live in peaceful community under the powerful hand of the Anglo-American.* It was for this liberty, more than for all else, that the blood of the people was poured out like water at Concord, at Bunkers' Hill, at Bennington, at Sarratoga, at Redbank, at York Town, and New Orleans.

The prosperity of America is greatly attributable to the enterprise and energy of her sons. To hurl mountains out of the way in the construction of railroads, to bore through them to form tunnels, to throw mountains into the water as a foundation for roads in places where it is necessary for them to overpass the water,—all this the Americans regard as nothing. They have literally a "faith to remove mountains,"—they hesitate at nothing,—they regard nothing as impossible. It does not appear that they ever ask the question, Is such a thing easy or difficult of accomplishment? but, Can it be done?—meaning that if it is possible to be effected by human effort and ingenuity, it *shall* be accomplished. They seem to act as though difficulties were made to be surmounted; while, like all other men of energy and entreprise, they find that both body and mind are improved by the toil that fatigues them. This characteristic is well expressed in the following lines of one of their own poets:—

"Though before you mountains rise,
Go ahead.
Scale them! certainly you can:
Let them bravely dare the skies;
What are mountains to a man!
Go ahead.

"Though fierce waters round you dash,
Go ahead.
Let no hardships baffle you;
Though the heavens war and flash,
Still undaunted firm and true,
Go ahead."

We have already referred to the enterprise displayed in the construction of railroads and canals to connect the remote Western

* Homes of the New World.

States, the great lakes, and the extensive valley of the interior, with the ports and cities of the Atlantic sea-board, as the main immediate cause of the vast development of the production and commerce of the American Republic which has recently taken place; and it may not be irrelevant to add in this connection, that those States in general which first took steps to facilitate locomotion and intercourse by railroads, canals, and other means, have made the greatest progress in importance and prosperity.

Not the least of the causes of America's success as a nation are the facilities created by extended locomotion. Railroads, as a mode of international and inland communication, have wonderfully told upon American progress. So fully aware were the Romans of the advantages derived from facilities of conveyance and inter-communication, that they gave great attention to road making. They everywhere employed their legions when free from the more pressing work of war, in constructing those highways of which so many monuments exist even to the present day. And such is the creed and practice of the Anglo-Americans.

In further relation to the industry and energy of the American people, it may be stated as one of the causes of her rapid advancement in the scale of nations, that one man in the United States does more work in a single day than ten in many countries of the ancient continent. The Americans having improved their machinery by thousands of patents, and having adapted them to almost every purpose of husbandry, can, therefore, though labour is dear, by the employment of a smaller number of hands, successfully compete with the agriculturalists of Europe and her colonies. Hence their ability to undersell the cultivators of the English West Indian colonies in almost all the cereal productions. At the same time their policy has been, especially at the earliest period of their history as a commonwealth, to encourage emigration from Europe; not of the dregs of the population as has so frequently been the custom in our colonies,—men who were of no service but to die and fatten the soil,—but of such as would infuse a spirit of intelligence and activity into the social mass, and that energy and knowledge that bore directly on the social and commercial advancement of their adopted country. Many of them were men of capital, intent on its augmentation for the advancement of their families.

The freedom of American institutions is admirably adapted to new settlements; and the extraordinary energy which this freedom produces, is seen in the present day in many districts of the Far West, but especially in the rise of San Francisco, in California, a city where commerce and agriculture are amazingly expanding,—where there are already many miles of streets, many churches, thoroughfares, railways, and electric telegraphs, with a population of upwards of 60,000. From this city of yesterday, steamers run to Oregon on the north, and Valparaiso on the south, and are about to ply to the Sandwich Islands and to China.

The site of this city a few years since was a wilderness; its free institutions have thus led to the most marvellous results. Among the evidences of extraordinary progress in the Western States, it will only be necessary to refer to Wisconsin, situated between Lakes Superior and Michigan, and the Mississippi River. It was admitted into the Union in 1838. In the year 1854—fifteen years afterwards—the number of inhabitants had increased to 50,000, and now, in 1856, to 305,000.

Life and property, notwithstanding the motley character of the population, have been wonderfully preserved and protected. Unlike the British colonies, the most distant states and territories of America are contented and prosperous, because, as expressed by Sir William Molesworth, "they are not confined by the swaddling bands of infants."

In the very childhood of the Republic, every man enjoyed the power and the right of carrying his labour, skill, and industry to the best market he could find. Restriction was regarded as wholly inconsistent with that fair competition which is essential to commercial freedom and prosperity.

Commerce tends to wear off those prejudices which maintain distinction and animosity between nations. It softens and polishes the manners of men. It unites them by one of the strongest of all ties,—the desire of supplying their mutual wants. It disposes them to peace, by establishing in every State an order of citizens bound by their interests to be the guardians of public tranquillity. As soon as the commercial spirit acquires vigour, and begins to obtain an ascendant in any society, we discover a new genius in its policy, its legislation, its wars, and its negociations. In this view, very considerable influence for good in the United States, is attributable to her commerce.

The intercourse with America being so extensive on the part of England, has been highly beneficial in softening the differences produced on character by their forms of government by the memory of past wrongs, by difference of climate, and by strongly contrasting habits. The merchant is a true cosmopolite, and the estimation in which he holds a people with whom he deals, is in general a more truthful commentary on their tastes, their probity, and their intelligence, than the most brilliant and laboured exposition of the historian.

Mankind may be knitted together for a time in various countries by sympathies excited by accidental circumstances; but there can be no common political bond of union between nations, but one founded upon a feeling of common interest.

It is the just remark of a wise man,—"Make foreign nations dependent upon you for some of their comforts and their conveniences,—encourage them in the prosecution of their industry by becoming their customers,—give to them the products of your own in an exchange advantageous to both parties, and you will raise up mutual feelings of affection and sympathy which will go further than anything else to prevent that, which in my mind has been, and is, the greatest curse that has ever afflicted mankind—WAR."

The spirit of commercial enterprise which the first settlers took with them to America, has been a moving power of the political machinery, a fountain of national strength, and a vital element of the social system. It is the spirit of commerce taking advantage of the energy and enterprise awakened that has pushed on the population into the wilderness, opening new channels of trade, creating fresh markets in all directions, and calling new cities into existence as if by enchantment, along the line of its march.

While the superior spirit of enterprise manifested by our transatlantic brethren is not without its influence in securing the stupendous results we have described, the legislature, at the same time, considers itself the incorporated patron of the public good, and lend its corporate credit to the promotion of every object for the benefit of the nation.

Railroads, canals, steam navigation companies, are all powerfully aided by Congress, and the government thus confers lasting benefits upon the country. There is truth in the observation of an eminent New Englander,—"Men may talk about the burden of taxes to build railroads and other facilities of conveyance, but

the tax the people pay to be without them is an hundred fold more oppressive."

In America there is a proper estimation of the respectability and dignity of labour, and of field labour in particular. Parents and heads of families seem generally here to act in accordance with the custom which is said to obtain in many patrician families in Germany, in that especially of the Imperial House of Hapsburg and Lorraine, of having all their sons instructed in some trade or handicraft, so that should everything else fail, the common labour market of the world would be open to them. They consider that a gentleman is not less a gentleman because he is conversant with law, with medicine, with trade, or with agriculture. They seem to consider that a man without the personal power of producing some portion of what he is compelled by nature to consume, must be a frequent slave to his fears, if not sometimes to his necessities.

All regard labour, especially agricultural labour, as one of the great elements of society, the great substantial interest on which the nation stands. Labour; intelligent, manly, independent, thinking and acting for itself, earning its own wages, accumulating those wages into capital, educating childhood, maintaining worship, claiming the right of the elective franchise, and helping to uphold the great fabric of the State! About two-thirds of the American people are agriculturalists.

Agricultural labour especially is considered the most honourable of employments, and no means have been spared, both by public journalists, by monthly and other periodicals, and by the preceptors of youth, as well as by public lecturers, to impress this upon the minds of the juvenile population. Agriculture is considered the parent and nurse of the nation,—the source of all that is most valuable; the leading men of the country, therefore, from the earliest times, considered it of the first importance to their commonwealth, as that which was absolutely necessary not only to its prosperity, but to its existence. Hence it has ever had a precedence in the American mind over useless arts and offices, and employments which contribute nothing to the material wealth of the nation. As among the ancients—the Assyrians, the Persians, Egyptians, and the Romans,—it has ever been patronized by the Governors of the respective States, as well as by Washington and others of the leaders of the American Republic who practised it themselves, and wrote the warmest recommendations of it to the people. Among

other evidences of the actual interest of the Government itself in the promotion of agriculture, may be mentioned the efforts that are made and the money that is expended by Congress in the collection and distribution of foreign seeds, grains, fruits, and plants. By the express sanction of Congress, under the supervision of the Patent Office, at Washington, a circular is sent every year by the Secretary of State, instructing the two hundred and fifty diplomatic, consular, and commercial agents abroad, to make collections of the most valuable seeds and grains grown in the countries where they reside. These selections are, for the most part, made with great care, and abundant quantities pour in during the autumn and winter seasons from every part of the world. They are scrupulously assorted at the Patent Office by practical, scientific agriculturalists, and divided into as many portions as there are members of the Houses of Congress. Each member receives several thousand parcels, all carefully labelled, with directions for planting and sowing; and through the members these seeds are distributed among all the leading agriculturalists, horticulturalists, and cultivators of the soil in every portion of the Republic.

A full report, in a neatly bound volume, with illustrations and explanations, is published every year; and this report has an equally extensive distribution, generally from fifty to one hundred thousand copies. In these objects the Government of the United States expends about half a million of dollars per annum. A striking illustration of this fact is found in the circumstance, that when the great discovery was made a short time since of the immense deposit of mineral phosphate of lime in the northern portion of the State of New York, a joint committee of both houses of the legislature of this State made a report on the subject, and disseminated the information over the entire Union. Thus, in connection with other collateral circumstances, all the population, except in the Southern States, are productive labourers, while at the same time there is no waste of labour. How different to the state of things existing in the tropical colonies of Great Britain,—in Jamaica; and the same may be said of the other West India Islands! Where agricultural labour has been performed by slaves, the cultivation of the soil has been regarded *only* as the business of slaves, while it attaches a disgrace to the most ordinary functions of toil; and thus there is a degradation of labour generally, by which both the white and coloured population, as well as a considerable portion

of what are called the working classes, are excluded from almost every department of productive industry. One of the minor evils of slavery is, that it destroys all personal independence. Probably one half of the population in Jamaica is unproductive; hence poverty, with all its attendant circumstances—apathy, idleness, and dependance. This debased spirit of servitude, the natural offspring of slavery, exists almost universally where slavery has existed. And hence, also, as in the Southern States of America, has there been visible so little of the sterling spirit of improvement, so little of material prosperity.

In the States there is an almost total absence of middle men and absenteeism—a system, wherever existing, that would turn a fruitful land into barrenness, and operate as a heavy, blighting curse on its inhabitants.

In Jamaica, as in others of the British colonies, there is an almost exclusive employment of *agents*, by which vast expenditure is involved, consequent improvidence in management, and great indifference to improvement in saving labour. Almost all the people of the States, especially those in the North-eastern and Western parts, possess property in the soil—a circumstance which, while it tends to render them peaceable and loyal subjects, also insures industry and appliances to improve its productiveness to the utmost,—insures on the part of each proprietor personal, practical devotion to the management of his property, which none but a lessee or owner feels. In Jamaica, and other West India colonies, with some exceptions, everything is the reverse.

There are no encumbered estates or farms in the United States as in Jamaica,—a system which sits as an incubus upon industry and enterprise,—and consequently all buy in the cheapest, and sell in the dearest market, thus escaping the many heavy commissions to which obligation to the foreign commission compels them to submit.

Proprietors have not, in the United States, to purchase credit which mortgages have destroyed, and which, with other machinery or agencies that absenteeism involves, consumes all the profits of the owner. Probably two-thirds of the estates and properties in Jamaica are mortgaged, and subject to the legitimate results of such a necessity or policy.

There is not in America, as in England, and her West India colonies especially, a general ambition to accumulate real estate in the hands of large proprietors, and to exterminate from the

soil all men of small capital. Nor are they infected with the impression, that real estate is valuable in an inverse ratio to the number of proprietors. As previously observed, almost every man in New England, and in most of the Middle and Western States, lives on his own grounds, and the lands, almost universally, are held in fee simple, and descend to his children in equal shares, as the larger properties after the war of independence were broken up into small portions. But in Jamaica, the magnitude of estates, and the absence of a small proprietary, though it is now becoming more general, produces, among other evils, an antagonism between property and labour. At the same time it may be said that in America no vexatious obstacles exist to the sale and partition of lands, and to the culture of such produce as is in immediate demand. Every man's labour is converted into capital by a home market for the surplus of the land he cultivates himself; while there are also such great facilities of conveyance,—bridges, roads, canals, &c.,—that the transport of produce to market is rendered easy and comparatively inexpensive. Nor do the occupiers of land in America, small or great, confine themselves to the cultivation of a few staples—they produce and manufacture everything.

There is also greater domestic economy practised in America than in England and Jamaica. Mr. Bigelow truly says, "People in Jamaica, with less incomes than five hundred dollars a year, will keep more servants than would be expected in the United States from an annual income of ten thousand dollars, while there is also an equal style of living."*

But one of the most important elements of the national prosperity of the United States is the general self-reliance of the people—reliance on their own industry and resources.† From the first, the settlers of New England trusted for their success to God and to their own right hands. The woods soon

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* Bigelow on Jamaica.

† Louis Philippe pointing to a picture in the Palais Royale, in which he was represented giving lectures in geography for bread, said, "That picture I value more highly than all the splendid works in my gallery, for I have pride in reflecting that I have struggled as a man with poverty, and it seems to say to me, Louis Philippe, remember that there is no station in society dishonourable to man, except that in which he prefers dependance to honest labour."

Napoleon I also is reported to have said, "That no possible thing was impossible to well directed efforts, continued perseverance, and confidence in what was attempted."

rang with the cheerful sound of the axe, and the snowy desert was soon changed into a fair scene of life and vegetation.

Everywhere to the present day there is manifested an utter aversion to dependance,—an inherent hatred of pauperism, that would endure any sacrifice rather than seek relief by courses reputed disgraceful,—a dignified self-respect,—an acknowledgment of personal and relative responsibility. Self-reliance, indeed, has become an almost universal constituent of the American character. This noble spirit was taught them as an important lesson by the circumstances involved in the War of Independence.

To a considerable degree it may be said that the first emigrants carried out this spirit of self-reliance with them. The fostering hand of the parent Government had never been extended to them. Voluntary exiles from the land of their birth, the objects of persecution, they had nothing to expect from the king. On their very first landing they began to clear the interminable forest; they resisted the encroachments of the French, —built up their villages,—extended their settlements,—erected their fortifications,—established their religious institutions,—and maintained the Government, not only without the aid of England, but under many discouragements, and in the face of opposition.

The annals of colonization may be searched in vain for an effort so distinguished for courage, industry, perseverance, frugality, and intelligence.*

The wants produced by this state of things, created by the conflict with the Mother Country, stimulated the faculties, and became the fertile source of arts and inventions, insuring general national improvement. It placed a whole people in a situation most favourable to the development of their individual energies, awakened talent, aroused emulation, and stimulated every social principle into a combination of activity that could not rest while any obstacle remained to retard the progress of civilisation and happiness. It aroused every intelligence to acts of private judgment,—changed a dependent, recipient people into a reflecting, enquiring people,—lifted each human being out of the cast of the middle ages to endow him with individuality, and summoned him to stand forth as a man. "The world heaved with the fervent conflict of opinion; the people and their guides recognised the dignity of labour; the oppressed peasantry took

* Rule and Misrule, &c., by Haliburton.

up arms for physical liberty; then men began to reverence and exercise the freedom of the soul."*

One of the immediate results of the war was a retrenchment in the use of foreign articles, the encouragement of their own manufactures, and the consequent reduction of importations from England.

"Set a stout heart to a steep brae," says the Scottish proverb; and over many a sore pinch, moral and physical, has the truth that therein lies triumphantly borne our northern fellow-subjects during their toilsome wayfaring from the barbarism and misery of the first half of the eighteenth century, to the civilisation and prosperity that at the present day distinguishes Scotland among the nations.

Stout hearts did it all. So may it be said of America's greatness: moral courage, perseverance, industry, and self-reliance, with God's blessing, did it all. They set their shoulders to the wheel, and did not whiningly call upon Hercules for help. They found that the true source of success and happiness lay in cheerful exertion, and a firm determination to adapt themselves to their condition.

As in the United States a prudent, industrious man is sure to obtain the reward of his industry, the very fact that he knows that he has no poor rates to rely upon,—no parish to fly to for support in sickness and old age, no resource but that supplied by his own prudence and economy,—urges him to exercise these very virtues. Hence the numerous friendly societies voluntarily established by the working classes as provision for seasons of sickness and infirmity.

"The whole tendency of institutional arrangements in America," testifies Mr. Chambers, also, "is to create feelings of self-reliance."

A contrary tendency still prevails to a large extent in Great Britain, where, from causes it is unnecessary to recapitulate, the humbler classes require to be ministered to, and to be thought for, as if they were children. In America there is no enervating patronage; the people do not require to be patronised; you could scarcely insult them more than to propose it; they feel and act upon the conviction, that their fortune and their name, under Providence, are in their own hands. At the same time it may be observed that there is a great tendency in

* Bancroft's History.

America to despise what is termed *luck*, as well as patronage. Nobody asks for it. A fair field and no favour is the national wish. Go into any country town, and you will find, perhaps, a few disappointed, discontented idlers, shrivelling into nothingness; but you will find the great majority engaged in a healthy, active struggle with difficulties, and determined to overcome them. As in no part of the world has the principle of self-reliance been so severely tested as in America, so nowhere have there been exhibited such satisfactory results from its operation. The people have owed their growth, their energy, chiefly to that striving of the will which we call effort. A state of dependance does not make robust minds,—does not give men a consciousness of their own powers,—does not train them to endurance, to perseverance, to steady force of will,—that force without which all other acquisitions avail nothing. The state of self-dependance to which the American colonists were suddenly reduced was the school in which they acquired energy of purpose and character, —a vastly more important endowment than all the learning they had acquired in their former schools. Adversity they found to be a hard master,—physical sufferings and want, the power of fearful elements, and the vicissitudes of all human things; while they found that these were stern teachers, they also found that they did a work which their most compassionate, indulgent friends could not have done for them, and true wisdom blessed Providence for their sharp ministry.*

The peace, union, and prosperity of the country are greatly promoted and have a guarantee for their maintenance by the fact of the general possession of property by the masses,—in the fact that almost every man has a freehold in fee simple,—a stake in and a new motive of affection to his native or adopted land, and thus, being a territorial proprietor, he naturally partakes of the common impulse to maintain the securities of property. Law and order are as important to him who holds land for the subsistence of his family, or who earns wages that he may have land of his own to bequeath to his posterity, as to any member of the Congress or the Senate; while he has as deep an interest in the protection of property in general. In relation to the poorer classes, the produce of their own grounds is sufficient for the luxuries of life added to their subsistence; and the high wages they receive are a sufficient inducement to

* Channing.

them or their families, or some part of them, to labour on the farms of larger proprietors. Thus every farmer is surrounded by a contented and happy peasantry. In a certain sense, however, no man in this country is contented with his present condition. Every body is struggling for something better. But this is a kind of discontent which excites a man to rise in the world by honest exertions. The meanest swineherd strives and expects to be a territorial proprietor. The poorest mechanic aims to become a master. At Lowell, some of the young women hold stock in the mills in which they labour.*

The great economy of the Government throughout every department, as has been already noticed, has doubtless been one element of prosperity. As the happiness or misery of human life does not principally consist in great and sudden vicissitudes of property or misfortune, but in the perpetual recurrence of minor comforts or disquietudes, so it is remarkable what important benefits are derived and conferred by the steady and judicious application of small means and of slight resources to the attainment of any particular end. The people of America understood well that the theoretical constitution of Congress is of importance only just so far as it bears upon the practical issue of rendering their representation in the legislature the jealous and effective guardians of the public purse. Economy is their watchword. Whether the federal or democratic party enjoy and dispense the patronage of the Republic is not so much the question. They feel that the stability of the Republic, the security of property, the national credit, and the very existence of the poor, are ultimately involved in their system of taxation and finance—in the all important subject of public expenditure.

But one of the most remarkable features of America, and to which she owes, perhaps, more of her material prosperity than may be generally supposed, is the sound judgment and foresight displayed by her leading men, not only in the creation of facilities of locomotion, and the use of the advantages afforded by nature for the transmission of produce to market, and for the migration of their home population, but also in the designs of their national and other public works. In this respect they manifested from the first of their independence a spirit of patriotic enterprise never excelled. They laid out money on

* Chambers.

public works,—in dockyards, and public establishments in general,—from which they had but a distant prospect of seeing a return; and this is seen also in their durability and extent.

The great object of American enterprise has been, to connect the great lakes and fertile valleys of the Middle and Western States with the cities and States along the Atlantic sea-board, to improve the navigation of the great rivers, and thus bring into cultivation the valuable tracts of country along their banks, and, as a part of this great work, to connect with each other, by railways and canals, the towns and villages in the more densely peopled and cultivated districts which lie along the entire eastern frontier of the territory, from the State of Maine to the Gulf of Florida, and now onwards through the extent of their newly-acquired territory to the Pacific Ocean.

All this the Government were enabled to accomplish through the well-directed energies and hardihood of her citizens, whose guiding rule of action has ever been to look and struggle forward, while older nations have been content to loiter upon the beaten track of mediocrity, and hesitate and count the cost of every step of progress beyond the prescribed limits.

American statesmen saw and predicted the future, and looked mainly to the facilities of locomotion—railways, canals, and navigation—for the encouragement of the commercial and agricultural industry of the population; taking also a growing interest in the advancement of those sciences that bear especially upon agriculture, upon the means of subsistence, and the raw materials of manufacture.

Many of the early settlers of New England and the Middle States were men of letters. They carried with them a love of learning to the wilderness. They considered education essential to their progress and prosperity as a nation,—they considered it, indeed, a paramount necessity of their condition, indispensable to enable every free man to exercise the duties of citizenship with credit to himself, and without danger to his neighbour,—that it tended to insure their safety, the security of their property, and as necessary to the promotion of morality and religion. They therefore founded schools and colleges as a primary duty.

Hardly had the ground been cleared in the neighbourhood of Boston when the general court founded a college or University,

which they afterwards called Harvard.* In this respect they showed a far greater knowledge of the world, and of the proper course of education, than the inhabitants of the present British colonies. They first established literary institutions of a superior order, and then educated downwards to the common schools, as auxiliary seminaries, which were thus supplied with competent teachers; while duly qualified professional men and

* "The establishment of a college was not among the later, but among the earliest thoughts of our ancestors. They waited not for days of affluence, of peace, or even of domestic concord. The first necessities of civilized man, food, raiment, and shelter, had scarcely been provided; civil government and the worship of God had alone been instituted, when the great interests of education engaged their attention. Their zeal was not repressed by the narrowness of their territorial limits, not yet extending thirty miles on the sea-coast, nor twenty into the interior; nor yet by the terror of a savage enemy, threatening the very existence of the settlement; nor by the claims on their scanty resources, which an impending Indian war created; nor by the smallness of their numbers, certainly not then exceeding five thousand families; nor yet by the most unhappy and most ominous to their tranquility of all, the religious disputes in which they were over implicated. It was under a combination of disastrous and oppressive circumstances, any one of which would have deterred men of less moral courage and intellectual vigour, from engaging in any such general design,—on the eve of a war with the fiercest and most powerful of all the native tribes,—the Antinomian controversy at its highest and most bitter excitement,—an unexplored wilderness extending over their fragile dwellings its fear inspiring shades;—in the daytime, the serpent gliding across their domestic hearths, or rattling its terrors in their path; in the night their slumbers broken by the howl of the wild beasts, by the yell or warwhoop of the savage;—it was amidst a complex variety of dangers, which at this day, the imagination can neither exaggerate nor conceive, that this poor, this distressed, this discordant band of Pilgrims set about erecting a seminary of learning, and appropriated for its establishment, a sum 'equal to a year's rate of the whole colony!' For a like spirit under like circumstances, history will be searched in vain. The early records of the college indicate the universality of the will, at the same time that the nature of the gifts exhibit, in a strong light, the simplicity, and the necessities of the period. 'When we read,' says Pierce, the learned and laborious historian of the University, 'of a number of sheep bequeathed by one man; of a quantity of cotton cloth, worth nine shillings, presented by another; of a pewter flagon, worth ten shillings, by a third; of a fruit-dish; a sugar-spoon; a silver-tipt jug; one great, and one small trencher-salt, by others; and of presents or legacies, amounting severally to five shillings, one pound, two pounds, &c., all faithfully recorded with the names of the donors, we are at first tempted to smile; but a little reflection will soon change this disposition into a feeling of respect, and even of admiration.' How just is the remark of this historian! How forcible, and full of noble example, is the picture exhibited by these records! The poor emigrant, struggling for subsistence, almost houseless, in a manner defenceless, is seen selecting from the few remnants of his former prosperity, plucked by him out of the flames of persecution, and rescued from the perils of the Atlantic, the valued pride of his table, or the precious delight of his domestic hearth;—'his heart stirred and his spirit willing,' to give according to his means, towards establishing for learning a resting-place, and for science a fixed habitation, on the borders of the wilderness!

legislators were simultaneously provided for the State.* Schools soon multiplied, and colleges were established in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey. The fame of Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, reached the mother country before the revolution, and these colleges found many benefactors in the British Isles. In them many of the leaders of the revolution, and many of the statesmen who framed the constitution, were educated, and the fine moral principle and inflexible rectitude most of them displayed in their public and private life supply no inconsiderable evidence of their benefits. They have also furnished preachers for the pulpit, professors for the chairs of the higher religious seminaries, legislators for the halls of the national Congress, and *savans*, historians, and teachers for literature and the arts.

"New England to the present day," says an earnest advocate of these institutions, "stands throughout on these colleges as its pillars. They are not ornaments merely, and foliated capitals to its civilization; they are its sole and indispensable support, as necessary to it as the shaft of the obelisk to the statue on its summit."

In all the products of New England mind around the world at this hour is expressed the influence of the inspiration of her colleges—they have given to the land its power, and to the nation its celebrity. They have given life to the common schools,—have supplied them, directly or indirectly, with their teachers and patrons, and have prepared for them their books. They have fulfilled the same offices for academies and other higher seminaries; and these would have been long since extinguished if the colleges that supplied them with vital nutriment had ceased to exist.

The children of the early settlers, instructed in the rudiments of literary and scientific knowledge, were gradually stimulated to seek for themselves more extensive acquisitions. And as it is the property of knowledge, like light, to diffuse itself from the centre to the circumference, it soon pervaded the masses, and its beneficial influence was soon universally felt and recog-

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The inhabitants of the country contributing from their acres or their flocks, those of the metropolis from their shops and stores, the clergyman from his library, and the mechanic from his tools of trade. No rank, no order of men, is unrepresented, in this great crusade against ignorance and infidelity. None fails to appear at this glorious clan-gathering in favour of learning and religion."—*Quincy's History of Harvard College.*

* Rule and Misrule, &c.

nised as one of the most important and essential elements of the commonwealth, the greatest bulwark of the Government, and, next to religion itself, the only security and hope of their mighty empire.

While in their Constitution they recognise the principle that their Government depends for its existence upon the will of the people, they also maintain that the character of the Government depends upon the character of the people, and that, therefore, to preserve the Government pure and uncorrupted, they must spread the means of intellectual, moral, and religious education; a work which they did, and continue to do, by encouraging all institutions whose object is the melioration of society and the advancement of the human race. They knew that equality of rank, political rights, and the infusion of the elective principle into every institution, were insufficient of themselves to preserve vitality for any length of time, and that general education was the only sure basis on which their Government could be founded. Recognising the voice of the people as the only true source of power, their first, their constant aim, was to make the people understand and value their privileges, and render themselves worthy of the high vocation to which they were called. They knew that ignorance was the bane of society, the greatest foe against which a nation has to contend. They knew that unless they pursued a system of popular education the political equality of which they boasted would be only an insubstantial dream, a pleasing illusion. Knowledge is the true equaliser, the true democratic element; and it equalises by elevating, not by debasing its possessor.

Men of influence in the United States, like the ancient Spartans, look upon the education of the youth of their country as the most important of all national objects; and probably as to the means they employ for its extension they may in some instances be chargeable with impolicy.

Nor are their sentiments in regard to the importance and benefits of popular instruction erroneous. "The character and virtue of a people," says Bishop Bathurst, "is ever in proportion to the facility of their instruction, and it is this single cause that has raised them from savages into men, from slaves into citizens, and from all the grossness of sensual existence to the dignified enjoyment of cultivated beings."

An uneducated and unemployed poor not only must be liable to fall easily by a variety of temptations, but they will, at times,

certainly prove restless, dissatisfied, perverse, and seditious. Even the most useful and valuable qualities, for want of regular and good habits, and a proper bias and discretion communicated by early religious instruction, frequently become dangerous and hurtful to society; patience degenerates into sullenness, perverseness into obstinacy, and strength and courage into brutal ferocity.

"To neglect the education of our children," says the celebrated Saurin, "is to let loose madmen against the State, instead of furnishing it with good subjects." And again, "The most likely and hopeful reformation of the world," says Archbishop Tillotson, "must begin with children. Wholesome laws and good sermons are but slow and late ways; the timely and most compendious way is a good education."

In a word, men of learning and taste in the United States patronise and cherish education because it is the only instrument which can bring into full action the boundless stores of genius and of intellectual endowment which Providence has scattered so profusely and impartially among every rank of men. And christian philanthropists strive to advance it, because it not only presents the means most effectual to ameliorate the condition of mankind, to soften their manners, to refine their pleasures, to multiply their comforts, and to exterminate their most baneful and degrading vices, but also, next to the glorious gospel of the blessed God, to qualify them for the eternal happiness of the future world.

Much importance also is attached to the quality of the education imparted. The Americans seem to have a more correct apprehension than is generally found in England of the real meaning of the word education,—that it consists not so much in the communication of knowledge to the mind, as in drawing out its own resources, and in the actual development of its own powers. As already said, education there, is eminently practical, moral, and religious. More generally, therefore, than in England, the child is encouraged to employ his observing faculties and to examine the things which he observes, to view the bearings of scientific discoveries on great natural phenomena, and to advance from the consideration of nature to the contemplation of the Almighty Creator; thus developing the religious and spiritual life in proportion to physical improvement.

As the natural sciences are now of such universal application to the daily wants of life, a popular knowledge of these is con-

sidered indispensable. American youth are taught in particular the elements of botany, the leading principles of geology, chemistry as applicable to agriculture, mental arithmetic, mechanical drawing, the theory of the steam-engine and of electric telegraphs, and the most useful foreign languages. Jurisprudence also, as one of the most natural and efficient expedients for educating men into good citizens, is considered an essential branch—a central subject of education, because law is regarded as a system of practical ethics by which men are to conform themselves in all their social life.

William Penn, in his legislation for Pennsylvania, with the conviction that education had a direct bearing on the moral and social state of the masses, enjoined that all parents and guardians should instruct the children under their care not only to read the Scriptures and to write when twelve years of age, but that a copy of the laws should be used as a school book. Dr. Warren urges that jurisprudence should be introduced into the schools of England, not only for the effect on the scholar himself, and for the moral training and intellectual discipline involved in the study, but also for the reflex influence which such general cultivation would exert upon the laws themselves. He justly says, "There is no more certain way of improving the law, and of finally purging it of all extraneous matter, than by lifting upon it the light of an intelligent public opinion." These were great facts which did not escape the far-seeing eye of the first settlers in Massachusetts in particular.

"The New Englanders," says Mr. Fennimore Cooper, the celebrated American novelist, "are the best educated and most estimable portion of the American people. Here, also, it is, that religion, order, and frugality, and even liberty, have taken deepest root,—the results, doubtless, of their early moral and religious training."

The same testimony is borne by another authority. "Education in the New England States, which contain a population of little more than two millions, has been more widely extended than in any others, and the results, as is universally allowed, are, that the people of these States are distinguished above all other Americans for industry, intelligence, morality, and religion."

The founders of the Republic—Franklin in particular—from a singular and far-sighted appreciation of the advantages of knowledge in general, contemplating the benefits that would result from the growth of mind, and the formation of the

character, in regulating the conduct of life,—established social institutions in Philadelphia and elsewhere, to bring into connection men of different classes and pursuits, to promote the free interchange of opinion for the correction of prejudice and as a stimulus to the pursuit of literature,—fully aware of its benefits in preventing a contracted and exclusive nationality, narrowness of thought, and that exaggerated estimate of individual acquirements, which ignorance or a devotion to one exclusive object is apt to engender in those who possess but little knowledge of books and of the world.

The benefits of education were so manifest as it progressed among the masses in diminishing intemperance, pauperism, and crime, and in promoting industry, intelligence, enterprise, morality, and religion, apart from its influence in increasing the strength and wealth of the nation, that its universal diffusion is at present one of the most popular subjects of the day. It is widely believed that even now, but for schools and other institutions more or less connected with them, humanly speaking, the country would soon be degraded to the same level with Mexico, and the other republics of the southern continent. Hence, at no former period of her history, did America employ so many educational instrumentalities, besides public libraries and mechanics' institutes, at all approaching in numbers and efficiency those now in operation; whilst the sincerity and earnestness of this desire for social improvement is sufficiently attested by the degree in which the States generally tax themselves for its promotion.

The light of knowledge is abroad,—has dispersed already much of the mists and vapours of the night,—has chased away much of the darkness which concealed deformities, and of the indistinctness that gave greatness to self-seeking and meanness, —while the effects of the diffusion of good principles and of the harmonising influences of extended education and improved literature daily become more visible, also, in the growing strength and energy of the champions of truth—sure sources of peace and happiness to bless the land for generations to come.

Everything in relation to religion and morals, as well as to agriculture and commerce, is in a state of progression,—the whole movement of the social system tends upwards, and this growth of cultivation and improvement embraces all classes; and every branch of activity extends to the most remote points, and includes the most humble individuals.

Education engrafts the desire of knowledge on the youthful mind, and directs its acquisition. The labour of the student successively applied in one direction, opens other avenues to him still more profitable, and leads to the development of every resource of human talent and ingenuity. Thus, whilst the accumulation of wealth tends to enfeeble the orders that possess it in excess, the cultivation of science facilitates even in a more rapid and extensive degree the exaltation of the industrious portion of the people by giving them the knowledge which is power.

Not more, however, are the state and prospects of America dependent upon the extent and character of her educational institutions than upon other important circumstances connected with them. They have no chartered and exclusive fountains of learning in this country surrounded by restrictions inconsistent with the wants and rights of the people, such as have prevailed for ages at Oxford and Cambridge, and at similar institutions in other countries of Europe. All old, withered forms were set aside at the revolution for visible and tangible realities. All such institutions have here a national character. Nothing in them is intolerant, aristocratic, or sectarian. There is no such thing as bartering conscience and principle for the sake of obtaining their advantages. They are not degraded by being made subservient to one portion of the people only;—they make no invidious and injurious distinctions. Disentangled from the grasp of interested partisans, the genius of literature in the New World vindicates her right to receive all who solicit her favours, of whatever condition or creed.

CHAPTER XXVI.

PECULIARITY OF ORIGINAL EUROPEAN INHABITANTS.—Their character and previous circumstances. General influence they exerted. Inauspicious and painful occurrences of their first settlement. Their industry and skill. Habits of life. Their stern, unaffected piety. Salutary influence in domestic and social life, in the local politics of the districts they inhabited, and subsequently in the councils of the nation. General diffusion of Protestant Christianity over the land. The firm belief of the Pilgrim Fathers in the beneficent purposes of the Almighty in their expatriation. The evident approval of God of their plans and efforts. His continued blessing on the plans and enterprises of their successors. Influence of the belief in the purpose and providence of God both in the discovery and settlement of the New World. Prevalent conviction of the final evangelization of America, and that the vast influence it is destined to exercise in the conversion of the world is the subject of ancient prediction.

The peculiarity of the origin of the European inhabitants of the United States, and the decided religious influence that they exerted on the character of the Republic, must ever be reckoned among the chief causes of her moral and national greatness. No one can calculate what has been the influence of religion, as diffused by the first settlers in Massachusetts, in raising America to all that she is in character, in happiness, and in power. Every family was a centre both of civilisation and of religion. It is not valour in war, not policy in government, not genius in invention, not extent of dominion, not rich mines of gold and silver, nor magazines, nor armies, nor forts, nor councils, nor fleets, but "RIGHTEOUSNESS that exalteth a nation,"—that constitutes its honour, its safety, its renown. While liberty is the security for order,—education and religion are the supports and safeguards of liberty.

America was first settled to an extent sufficient to give a cast to its character and institutions by that extraordinary race of men—the English Puritans, to whom reference has been already made. They were separatists from the Established Church; some exiled to Leyden, and called "Brownists," and others "Nonconformists," from England. The former landed at Plymouth, in December, 1620; the latter, in 1620, at Massachusetts Bay, now Boston, about twenty-six miles distant, along the coast to the south, in the reign of James the First. Brown returned

to the Established Church, and was succeeded as a leader of the "Brownists" by Robinson. These had originally been driven by persecution from England into Holland, but were urged by various circumstances to remove to America, and at length sailed from Delft Haven in the *Mayflower*. They were some of the very best of England's sons. They were men who, while they felt that there was no true domestic happiness where Christianity was not the law of the family, and no security against perfidy and the breach of the social compact where the restraining influence of the Gospel was not acknowledged; felt, also, that there was no political freedom worthy of the name where the law of the land was not commensurate with the law of Christ. They were men whose stern, uncompromising principles of freedom even David Hume, who cannot be suspected of bias in their favour, confessed, secured the liberties of Great Britain several centuries ago;*—men of rigid conscientiousness, who

* "No one at this stage of our history denies that it was from the religious spirit of the people that our liberties grew. Even David Hume, while he derides the principles of the Puritans, admits that it was their unbending spirit that achieved the triumph. Even he, astonished by the temper which broke forth simultaneously from all parts of the country, is forced to acknowledge that it brought with it to the contest some principles of singular energy. Even he, when he sees it refusing to compromise the rights of conscience to Elizabeth,—sustaining without dismay the augmented authority of James,—braving without alarm the thunders of Charles's prerogative,—and never swerving or faltering in the course which it had adopted,—even he is compelled to admit that there was a virtue in this, whose sources he could not appreciate, but whose strength he could not but admire. It was the spirit of religion which led our Fathers into that great conflict, and sustained them in it; and it was this that nerved the arm and supported the resolution of the great men who toiled through those anxious days"—*J. C. Calquhoun, M.P., Intro. Lec. delivered at Glasgow, in the Mechanics' Institution.*

Thus says Hume: "The precious spark of liberty had been kindled, and was preserved by the Puritans alone, and it was to this sect that the English owed the whole freedom of their constitution." "The evils which they checked were great and numerous, and the blessings they secured for mankind of inexpressible value. But the religious liberty for which they contended was still more important; and the enduring firmness and holy heroism with which they resisted the attempted encroachments of power upon the rights of conscience deserves to be commemorated in the most grateful expressions of a richly-benefitted posterity. Religion was the substance of their noble tree of liberty, bending with the fruits of domestic comfort, public and private wealth, law, order, and devotion."

"The odious and iniquitous persecutions of the Puritans," says another author, "resulted in a great benefit to the human race, and gave the first strong impulse to that spirit of resistance which ultimately overthrew opposition. It caused also the colonization of New England to be effected by a class of men far superior in industry, energy, principle, and character, to those who usually left their English homes to seek their fortunes in a new country."

spurned at all compromise of truth, all sacrifice to expediency,—who believed in the Invisible Jehovah, and rested in that belief;—men in whom the love of God and the love of the rights of men were united into one firm, indomitable principle of action. To summarise the constituents of their character, they may be said to have been distinguished by tender benevolence, by patience, the most blameless virtue, the most spiritual piety, the strongest faith, the most entire devotedness. Religion was their ruling principle, and liberty they valued next; and while these great principles swelled their hearts with holy heroism, they maintained the conflict against despotism under their old Puritan banner, with its motto, "*Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietam.*"

The English Puritans were the men who saved to England, not only her Constitution, but her Protestant religion,—who, having excited in their own country the spirit which led to what Englishmen are accustomed to call the "Glorious Revolution," sought a wider and more congenial home on this side the waters. "Their names unknown till persecution dragged them into fame."

Imprisoned, maimed, oppressed at home, they looked beyond the Atlantic for a better world,—a world where it would not be a civil offence to have a conscience. Their energetic passion was nurtured by trust in the Divine protection; their power of will was directed by their vigorous and holy creed; and under the banner of the Gospel, with that fervent and enduring love, and that stern simplicity which distinguished the myriads who in Europe adopted the creed of Calvin,—the heartfelt, unearthly religion of the Bible,—they sacrificed their country and their kindred, braving the dangers of the ocean and the wilderness. They sailed far away from the tyranny which trampled upon popular rights,—which aimed to govern by the Star Chamber without Parliaments;—far away from the tortures, fines, and dungeons,—the whole train of evils and disabilities that were imposed by Elizabeth and the infatuated dynasty of the Stuarts;—far away from Popery and Prelacy,—from the traditions of the church,—from hereditary power,—from the sovereignty of an earthly king,—from all dominion but that of the Bible, conscience, reason, and the principles of equity.

The ideas which had borne the New England emigrants to this transatlantic world were thus polemic and republican in their origin and their tendency. They asked for the freedom of

the press, for *viva voce* discussion, for the freedom of the pulpit, for the free maintenance and diffusion of their principles;—and these they at once adopted and maintained in their voluntary exile as their natural right. And now have the centuries matured the contest for mankind.*

They were not impelled to their expatriation to the New World, as the Spaniard, by sordid ambition, by the lust of gain or gold, nor for the sole sake of trade, commerce, or profitable speculation. Their chief design was to establish a community which in a new country might perpetuate their religious, social, civil, and political views; at the same time they sought a sanctuary where such a community might dwell in security and peace.

The difficulties and discouragements which this pious and devoted band—men who had been derided by a cold-hearted, bigotted, inane multitude as visionary enthusiasts†—had to

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* See Bancroft's Revolution.

† The Puritans have been stigmatized, traduced, and misrepresented by Butler in his "Hudibras," by Halliburton in his "Rule and Misrule of the English," &c., by Hildreth in his "History of America," by the "Edinburgh Review," and by others who were unequal to an accurate delineation of the finer and more ethereal elements of their character. "They have been held up to derision as unamiable, contumacious, narrow-minded hypocrites, who veiled under their profession much singularity and selfishness. Some such there were found among them doubtless; but these were not the exponents of the religion of the great majority. All, too, doubtless, had their infirmities as men, and such as arose from their circumstances and the times in which they lived. But let justice be done to that more divine life which has been in every age the prolific source of union and of human charity. They had errors, which we should avoid; their faults were human, their virtues we may almost call divine. Among other errors, as recorded in the sketch of Rhode Island, the Puritans, basing their theories of civil government too exclusively on Scripture, fell into the error of confounding sins against the Almighty with crimes against society; and, animated with the best possible intentions, they established laws essentially tyrannical, and endeavoured to exclude from all civil rights those who were only obnoxious to ecclesiastical censure or discipline: thus, *de facto*, creating a Church and State establishment of their own."

"The first settlers of Massachusetts were strict Calvinists. There they planted their churches, and founded their university, and laid their foundations, with the hope of perpetuating these principles through all time. As they were pilgrims and exiles for religious considerations, religion was with them the first and great interest, and they founded a christian commonwealth, in which none could enjoy the right of suffrage who were not communicants of the church. This was a mistake from which many sad consequences resulted. It led many to seek admission to the church, in order to secure civil privileges, who were not converted; and it arrayed against the church all who were not willing to purchase political position by living in the sin of hypocrisy. They could not enjoy the privileges of freemen save by turning hypocrites. The above law was repealed soon after the accession of Charles II., but not until it had caused the seeds of discontent to be very widely sown."—*Eclectic Review.*

encounter in their first settlement were calculated to appal the stoutest heart. They had to endure long days of most laborious toil, followed by weary and solitary nights; sometimes famishing for lack of sustenance, or dying from thirst; struggling against circumstances the most adverse and disheartening; in constant danger from savage beasts and savage men.

Amidst all these, and numberless other difficulties and dangers, had the Pilgrim Fathers to rely only upon the self-sustaining power of their own minds. What exquisite mental anguish and severe bodily sufferings must not these poor wayfarers have experienced! What lassitude of spirit and unsatisfied longings! Nothing could have enabled them to bear up against such sufferings and dreariness of heart but the most powerful motives for action. Such motives they possessed.

They were not afraid of poverty, but they disdained to be slaves. Their desire was to worship God in the way of his appointment, and to promote his glory in the salvation and happiness of their fellowmen: they thus persevered, trusting in God.

The Pilgrim Fathers carried with them to the land of their expatriation not only a love of civil liberty, but European arts and sciences, and manufactures, with an inherent taste for domestic cleanliness, economy, and industry; qualities which, through this channel, have been so largely diffused through the United States. "Many of them," said an historian of that day, "were the ablest designers and manufacturers, the purest and most industrious of citizens; with that mercantile energy which, if it had not been impeded, would have made the then imbecile navy of the country that drove them forth, powerful on every sea."

They were men who, by the avowal of their enemies, "combined the qualities of the citizen, that is, respect for the law, application to their work, attachment to their duties, and the frugality of the poorer classes, with those of the christian, viz., a strong love of their religion, a manifest desire to conform their conduct to their conscience, a constant fear of the judgments of God."

The Pilgrim Fathers were men of whose enlightened benevolence America may well be proud, and whose virtuous and religious example can never be lost,—they were men over whose graves Liberty weeps amidst the unwithering garlands which Christianity has strewn on their repose.

Without their heroic valour the Union would not have been formed or successfully defended; nor would liberty have triumphed.* They fought for this at Louisburgh, at Quebec, and on every battle-field of the revolution from Lexington to York Town, and for this they have since borne the starry banner over every sea. They not only planted the Puritan Colony on Plymouth Rock and Rhode Island, and on the shores of the St. Lawrence beside Niagara, but as far as the St. Marie, among the wild Indians, by Lake Superior. And at James' River and other localities in Georgia and Virginia, the noble and generous Oglethorpe, as well as Huguenots

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* Some good men and others in England seem to deprecate the interference of christian men and ministers of the gospel with the politics of a country. It was not so with the Pilgrim Fathers. Viewing the great questions of legislative and executive government as affecting the spiritual as well as temporal interests of man, and inferring that the government and situation of nations must be nearly related to the moral government of God and the spread of His gospel, they felt it their duty to take an especial interest in political affairs. They were, indeed, the founders of the present republican government, and acted upon their rights as citizens from the very first of their settlement. They did not, therefore, as some good men do at the present day, consider there was any impropriety in their implicating themselves with the government of the country. On the contrary, knowing from bitter experience the deep injury that might be inflicted on religion by a corrupt and tyrannical government, and recognising the temporal happiness of mankind as an object of religious regard, they considered their duty with respect to it imperative. One of the main causes of all the advantages, temporal and spiritual, that have been enumerated as secured to the Government of the United States, was the influence which religious men exerted in the councils of their country. In the Mayflower they formed the constitution of Massachusetts, and shaped the model which has given form to their free institutions as proclaimed in the first general Congress after the achievment of their independence. That at Rhode Island was framed by Roger Williams and his friends.—*Eclectic Review*, vol. i., p. 102.

And this duty is recognised by christian ministers as well as laymen at the present day; well knowing that they in common with their brethren have duties to discharge to man as well as to God, and that the form of government is as much as ever of consequence to religion, they feel bound, as religious men, to see to it that their liberties and the fundamental principles of the constitution are not impaired. Ministers, especially, employ this agency of usefulness, because their talents qualify them for a discharge of the duty, and because of the influence of their example. Nor do those of our brethren in the United States at the present day consider they have more important duties to discharge towards their fellowmen than those which devolve upon them as members of society in the various capacities to which they may, to a greater or less extent, influence the government of the country. Jealous, lest influences might arise from the rapid influx of foreigners that would wantonly jeopardise these firmest pillars of the constitution, and of religious liberty is the cause of the organization at present existing denominated "The Knownothings." Their democratic form of government, indeed, owed its origin to the Puritans, not to the Revolution and to the great statesmen who framed the federal constitution. A Republican Government "*de*

and Hernhutters, sought out for persecuted Protestants a home of freedom in these far-off lands of the New World where poverty would not be opprobrium, and where true piety could worship God in its own way. Under the same high and holy principle the chivalric Champlin exclaimed,—"I regard the salvation of a soul as more than the conquest of a kingdom."

Nor was the courage of the Pilgrim Fathers that merely of the warrior, which is often the effervescence of the moment,—the natural impulse of a soul-stirring profession, urging him to ride forth to combat with his mind strained to the utmost degree of

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facto" was founded at Plymouth in 1620, it may be said, in the Mayflower, before their debarkation, which subsisted in full force and vigour for more than half a century. The Puritans never acknowledged the authority of the Parent State. In 1630, ten years after landing in the Mayflower, the little State of Massachusetts was a federative body in itself. The town meeting was a little republic subordinate to the central one at Boston. Above all, and controlling all, was the metropolitan or federal administration of Boston. The Republican Government, therefore, resulted as an almost inevitable consequence of the settlement of the Puritans in New England, and the institutions they founded there.—*Haliburton's "Rule and Miscrule."*

On a part of the rock on which the Pilgrim Fathers landed, and which is enclosed within an iron railing in the Town Square of Plymouth, are inscribed the names of the illustrious forty-one who subscribed the compact on board the Mayflower, at Cape Cod Harbour, November 11th, 1620. This celebrated contract, which was, probably, the first written instrument of the kind in the world, was as follows:—

"In the name of God, Amen. We, whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord, King James, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, &c., having undertaken, for the glory of God and advancement of the Christian Faith, and honour of our king and country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the Northern parts of Virginia, Do, by these Presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation and furtherance of the end aforesaid; and by virtue hereof, to enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony; unto which we promise all due submission and obedience.

"In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the year of the reign of our Sovereign Lord, King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland, the fifty-fourth, anno domini, 1620."

The following are some of the names of the Pilgrims who subscribed to the compact:—

William Bradford.	Myles Standish.	—— Carver.
Edward Winslow.	Isaac Allerton.	John Winslow.
William Brewster, *Ruling Elder.*	John Bradford.	Constant Southworth.
	Thomas Prince.	Thomas Southworth.

Vide Harper's Magazine, Dec 1853.

excitement by the gorgeous spectacle of the pomp of battle, the ringing of steel and the clangour of armed squadrons, the flapping of banners and the glittering of arms, the martial bearing of the combatants and the maddening strain of the martial music,—no, theirs was the moral courage that disdained all adventitious aids; that dared calmly to uphold the principles which they honestly believed; that dared steadfastly to oppose the triumphant march of religious despotism; the moral courage which exhibited amenity and grace towards men with stern fidelity to God; the true virtue which cares not for reputation, for the authority of public opinion, or even the opinion of good men, still less for the benefit of being known and distinguished; —theirs was a virtue which discarded all these considerations absolutely, and which retired from them all to the single internal purpose of pleasing God; a virtue that manifested its genuineness and strength by an unflinching, simple, permanent, obedience to divine authority.

But they were branded as enthusiasts. Yes, they were enthusiasts! But the enthusiasm that impelled them to action was a noble, energetic quality, producing results worthy of itself. As true soldiers of Christ; the whole energies of their souls nerved to their work; made of sterner stuff and animated by a purer spirit than the world had ever seen before; filled with an invincible hatred of the persecuting laws of the Mother Country; they bore with them the stern resolve to perish or be free. It was a generous, hardworking enthusiasm, which expressed itself in deeds, not words,—an enthusiasm which brooked no control but God's; and they were not without their reward. They had been instigated by religious motives, and these amply supported them in their hardest adversity.

Who shall spurn at the principle which animated these moral heroes, for such they were, in all their perils and adversities? Nothing less than that high christian enthusiasm could have kept them from failing in their path. Enthusiasm! Rather Faith in their own high destiny and in God! Their perseverance never flagged; for they were sustained throughout by belief in the truths they were asserting, and in the Master whom they served.

Theirs was not the enthusiasm of an hour, the fickle emotion created by passion or example, the evanescent feeling that dies away without producing one lasting impression, but an enthusiasm that was permanent in its effects. They were not the

worshippers of romance, of popery, of royalty, but of the true God, and they exhibited their faith in stern virtue and works of charity.

It was this enthusiasm,—this confidence in their cause, in themselves, and in the God they worshipped, that carried them on, and compelled all obstacles to give way before them.

Their women also, actuated by the same high impulse, threw off the timidity of their sex; and emulating, nay, even equalling man's physical force, undertook and succeeded in enterprises before whose very name they might well have quailed. It carried them into scenes the most unfitted to their natural or acquired refinement, and taught them to despise and brave both suffering and death. It bore them on through neglect and obscurity,—they required not the stimulus of public applause.

> "Ambitions now but little to be praised
> Of men alone; ambitious most to be
> Approved of God, the Judge of all, and have
> Their name recorded in the Book of Life."

Thus Howard, in his untiring exertions, cheered by his enthusiasm alone, ameliorated the prisons of Europe,—thus Brindley and Fulton worked amidst a jeering world,—thus the Scotch Covenanters suffered for freedom of faith and liberty of conscience,—so it was that the Pilgrim Fathers were stimulated, and that the noblest works of America have been achieved, and her prosperity and glory have been created.

Enthusiasm is commended in the poet, in the naturalist, in the politician, and in the patriot, and why should it be censured in the christian because of his devotion to the cause of philanthropy and religion?

It is not a matter of surprise that from a parentage strong as that of the Pilgrim Fathers should be derived a race destined to become a great people. Other colonies more to the South—the Cavaliers of James Town and others, whose morals were more lax, and whose purpose of life was of a lower range—had either died out or maintained merely a feeble existence amid warfare with the natives, sufferings from the climate, and incessant conflict with surrounding difficulties.* The Puritans of

* Particularly at Virginia on James River. It was first settled by a small number of settlers in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, after whom it was called. Subsequently under James I., &c.

New England, on the contrary, with their lofty aims, their steadfast faith, and pure manners, became conquerors of the desert, and the law-givers of the New World.

"Nor do I know any nation," says Miss Bremer, "which ever had a nobler foundation or nobler founders. The whole of humanity had taken a step onward with the Pilgrim Fathers in the New World. The work which they had to do concerned the whole human race. To them belongs the honour of that new creation; and from them, even to this day, proceed the creative ideas in the social life of the New World; and whether willingly or unwillingly, widely differing people and religious sects have received the impression of their spirit. Domestic manners and social intercourse form themselves by it; the life of the church government, of all religious bodies, reveal the influence of the Puritan standard: 'Live conformable to conscience; let thy whole behaviour bear witness to thy religious profession.'"

Thus that form of government which was originated by the little company of the *Mayflower*, or rather by Roger Williams, has become the vital principle in all the United States of America, and is the same which now, on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, controls and directs with power the wild free spirits of California, educating them to self-government and obedience to law.

The old colonies have sent out to all parts of the Union crowds of pilgrims,—sons, and daughters,—and they constitute at this time more than one-third of the population of the United States of North America. They were nevertheless most numerous in the north-east, and there they have left the strongest impression of their spirit. Thus, while much may be said of the vast and prolific territory of America, of her havens full of shipping, of the scope for her arts and manufactures, of the *material* from which her wealth arises,—whatever may be said of these as promoting her national and moral greatness, there is another element still more precious—the character of her people.

"When I contemplate this Puritan community," says a celebrated author, "as it exists in our time, about two centuries after its first establishment, it seems to me there are two main springs within its impulsive heart;—the one is a tendency towards the ideal of moral life, and the other impels it to conquer the earth, *i. e.*, the material power and products of life."

"The men of the New World, and preëminently the men of New England (humorously called Yankees), have a passion for acquisition, and for this object think nothing of labour,—even the hardest,—and nothing of trouble; nay, to travel over the world to do a good stroke of business is a very little thing. The Viking element in the Yankee's nature compels him incessantly to work, to undertake, to accomplish something which tends either to his own improvement or that of others; for when he has improved himself he thinks, if not before, of employing his pound for the public good. He gets money, but only to spend. He puts it by, but not for selfish purposes. Public spirit is the animating principle of his life; and he prefers to leave behind him the name of an esteemed and beloved citizen rather than that of a large proprietor."

When General Jackson was President of the United States, and General Cass Secretary of War, they visited a portion of New England together. In riding over that highly cultivated country, General Jackson was much pleased with the appearance of the people, and expressed his gratification to his companion.

"What fine manly countenances these men carry!" exclaimed the President. "How robust and vigorous they are, and what a spirit of enterprise and perseverance they manifest! Why, with an army of such men I would undertake to face the world."

"Do you know the cause of these characteristics that you prize so highly?" rejoined the veteran Secretary.

"What is it?" asked the chief.

"Do you see the steeple of that meeting-house yonder on the hill?"

"Yes," replied the President.

"And that low school-house near it?"

"I see them both," said General Jackson.

"Well," answered General Cass, himself a native of the Granite State, "there is where New-Englandmen are made. The instruction they receive in the school-house and meeting-house give them the preëminence over others which you have so justly described."

Every one knows the reply of the boy in one of the mountain towns of New England to the enquiry of a passing stranger, "What do you raise here?" He replied, "Our land is rough and poor; we can raise but little produce, so we build school-houses and churches, and raise men."

Nor is it in the school-house and meeting-house alone that New-Englandmen are made. Every true Puritan family is the nursery of the future church; and every parent is to his children what his pastor is to him. They are placed under his care to be trained up in the way they should go, "to be brought up in the nurture and admonition of the Lord." Hence every family becomes a house of prayer, a nursery of piety, a vestibule to the church, a preparatory department in which the infant mind is trained for a place in Zion; and every parent is a highpriest over his family, a shepherd, spiritual guide, teacher, and protector of the infant immortals intrusted to him.

"The enterprise, and intelligence, and undying liberty," says an eloquent American writer, "the religious spirit, I may say, of the population of our Puritan colonies, have spread themselves over the whole continent. And what is worthy of special remark, these only prosper in our country. You look in vain over the whole expanse of our territory to find thrift and prosperity, temporal or spiritual, except under the auspices of Puritan influence."

"Wherever the sons and daughters of the Pilgrims find their way," says another, "there are established homes, schools, and churches, shops and legislative assemblies, the free press, hotels for strangers, and asylums for the unfortunate or the orphan. There is the prison converted into a reformatory institution, into a new school for the ignorant and depraved children of earth; wherever they come they acknowledge the name and doctrine of the Master who is the way, the truth, and the life."*

"Who found our colleges and seminaries," exclaims a third, "publish our books, teach our youth, sustain our benevolent enterprizes, and go to Pagan lands to make wretchedness smile and ignorance speak wisdom? Whose skill and industry rolls the railroad-car over the length and breadth of the land, and whitens the ocean with canvass? who, if not the sons of the Pilgrims, nerved with the spirit of the Pilgrims? Tell me in what proportion, in any section of our country, the people are leavened with the leaven imparted in the "Mayflower," and I will tell you in what proportion they are an enterprising, prosperous, moral, and religious people. Time shall expire before the immeasurable influences of Puritanism on the destinies of our country and the world shall cease to act."†

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* Homes of the New World.
† Reed's Hand of God in History.

Well might Sir Thomas Brown exclaim, "The world does not know its greatest men; for thus far it has chiefly discerned the violent brood of battle, the armed men springing up from the dragon's teeth, sown by hate, and cared but little for the truly good men, children of love,—those Cromwells, guiltless of their country's blood, whose steps on earth have been noiseless as an angel's wing."

"The great battles of the heart and of principles were fought in secret, and those conquests have now been achieved in all parts of the earth, forming as it were a moral stratum, upon which the intelligent universe looks with interest and admiration."*

If the youth of Greece and Rome derived peculiar benefit by being led to contemplate the varied history of their country,—the history of those whose vices blotted the fairer records of their times, or of those whose virtues were the guiding stars of their successors in the paths of philosophy and patriotism, let the youth of America still cherish the names and imitate the stern virtues of the Pilgrim Fathers! If the names of Lycurgus, Solon, and Socrates were universally proclaimed and revered on the heights of Parnassus and the groves of Academus, let not Americans forget the founders of their liberty—the men who first settled on Rhode Island and Plymouth Rock.

The influence of religion, as well as of civil liberty, but more than all else, in subordination to evangelical piety, that of their peculiar church polity, thus introduced by the Pilgrim Fathers, has gone hand in hand with civilization, science, and law. Its great principle of order, submission, and law, has been the stability of the American Republic—the main bulwark of their commonwealth. Its presence among them has been a saving-ark, a refuge, and a rock of shelter. It has formed amongst them that true brotherhood of which other nations have only dreamed. And religion, in connection with trade and commerce, is the pioneer of civilisation throughout the whole of the Western World, and every new State in the infancy of its settlement. Thus the strength of this Republic lies not chiefly in her commerce, nor even in her intellectual culture, but in her respect and reverence for religion, for Scriptural Christianity as embodied in the lives and enjoined by the authority of Christ and his apostles. "It is the Spirit of the world's Redeemer that makes America, as England, the world's con-

* Sumner's Peace Oration.

queror. This is the true Promethean spark—the vital element of her unexampled progress. Religion in America has proved itself the true salt of the earth, the vital force of the community, the main-spring, and the only one, of all social as well as political prosperity.

Much has been said and written of the character of the Anglo-Saxons,—of their wonderful enterprise, perseverance, and success,—of their wise and comprehensive plans,—and of their indomitable vigour in execution; while to a want of this Saxon element has been attributed the contrast presented by the Republics in Central and South America—the state of debasement, the decrepitude, and constant ferment which they have exhibited from their first settlement: their whole history, ever since their independence, presenting only a series of revolutionary struggles,—revolutionary cabals raised by the partisans of ambitious generals who protest against despotism in order that they may themselves be the despots. But the whole history of the United States, like that of England, will bear out the assertion that it is their religion,—their Protestant religion and church polity,—and not their Anglo-Saxonism, not any inherent and organic distinction or superiority of race that has been the source of the peculiar prosperity of America; that to the uniform influence of Protestant principles and the peculiar form of church government; or, rather, chiefly to the entire independence of the Church and State patronage and control: to these is to be attributed all that is great in the past and present of her history; and that the failure of the Republics of their Southern neighbours arises from the want of this great and solid Protestant basis.

If an accurate estimate is made of European nations also, the comparative purity or profligacy of their morals, and their comparative social prosperity, will be found to correspond with the religious systems to which they have been attached.

Howard, in his perambulations of charity, long since noticed this, and affirmed, that while he found some of the Protestant Cantons of Switzerland without one criminal detained in confinement for trial, the Popish Cantons had many; and, at the same time, the prisons of Naples were full of culprits. And how instructive is the comparison between the morals of Scotland and Ireland!

Protestantism, while it frees the religious faculties, enlarges and guides the intellect, and promotes physical improvement.

Steam navigation and locomotion, and the happy appliances of steam in aid of human industry, had not their origin in countries in which Popery is dominant. That system exerts a benumbing, paralysing influence wherever it maintains a preponderating influence.

The Protestant religion, by bringing all the awful realities of eternity to bear upon the interests of time, in every view promotes the wellbeing of the people; for a religion which, while it is at war with ignorance, with selfishness, with injustice, and the whole family of vices which these engender, supplies a renovating energy which answers every demand of social obligation, ever must go hand in hand with the progress of knowledge, and infuse its mild spirit of heavenly charity into all the forms which belong to the civil economy of nations. The verities of Protestant Christianity, in their simple and naked majesty, were made to bear on the minds of the American people from their earliest existence.

These principles entered into the elements and rudiments of their civilisation,—their civil superstructure was built entirely upon them; and the solidity of the edifice shows that true religion is the most efficient instrument of civilisation, as it teaches both how to mend old nations and how to construct new ones. For, as all the evils which afflict society emanate from man's heart, the spirit of a true vital Christianity—the only power that can enter the recesses of the mind, purify its pollutions, soften its stony selfishness, and inspire divine truth and goodness in the breasts of men,—can alone turn them from outward vice, render them strong against temptation, and send out in their lives the resistless forces of righteousness and love.

The qualities described are considered by some as attributable in an especial degree to the requirements and incidents of a forest-home in the New World, and the privations consequent upon it. While it is admitted that these circumstances had their influence in producing them, it is maintained that they did so only to an inconsiderable extent. Nor did the success of the early colonists arise mainly from their Anglo-Saxon origin, the cause to which it has been altogether attributed. These elements, it is repeated, have not been without their influence; but they have been as nothing compared with the character of the men themselves,—their frugality, temperance, purity of morals, simplicity of manners, respect for the authori-

ties of their little States, both civil and religious, and similar virtues, the result of stern, heart-felt religion.

Without this, their victories, their prosperity, their prodigious resources, all might have been only the means of promoting pride, and luxury, and sin, and oppression, and wrong. It is Christianity which can alone solve the problem of their history; their triumphs are inexplicable if you ignore their religion. And but for this, their greatness would have been an awful evil, at once spreading the sources of wealth, and fostering the dreams of ambition. From the very quality of the elements of which their population is composed, it may be justly said of them, as of England,—

> ——"More corrupted else,
> And therefore more obnoxious at this hour
> Than Sodom in her day had power to be,
> For whom God heard his Abraham plead in vain."

But having this, with God's blessing, they are justly "great, glorious, and free," while it impresses upon their prosperity the seal of future permanence and progress.

"The American Colonists," said one of their best statesmen in an address at Bunker's-Hill,—"the American Colonists brought with them from the Old World a full portion of the riches of the past in science, in art, in morals, religion, and literature. The Bible came with them; and it is not to be doubted, that to the free and universal use of the Bible in that age, men were much indebted for right views of civil liberty. The Bible is the book of faith and a book of doctrine; but it is also a book which teaches man his individual responsibility,—his own dignity and equality with his fellow-man."

They brought with them the Bible and habits of labour from Europe, and it may be said with justice, that to this day, these, in conjunction with education and the press, as collateral agents, are the great powers in the cultivation of the New World.

Very truly said the Count D'Artois to one of the gentlemen about him at the French Revolution, "If America should escape the general wreck of nations, she will owe her preservation to her religion."

The unexampled prosperity of religion in America, and the influence it has attained there beyond what it enjoys in England, is principally owing, doubtless, as is also the agricultural and commercial prosperity of the States, to its freedom

from governmental control,—together with its freedom from the trammels of ecclesiastical organizations. When the State lays unhallowed hands upon religion, it not only secularises her character, but also curbs and restrains her operations and influence.

There is in the United States exactly, and to the greatest possible extent, what the Rev. Mr. Osborne in his tracts has stated as such a desideratum in the Established Church of England, and which is the result of unrestricted religious as well as civil freedom. "They have in America, emphatically, schools and places of worship on a broad and comprehensive system. They have places of elementary learning in relation not only to secular but to spiritual learning; schools for humanizing; preaching-houses, where the teaching flows from the lips of earnest men, dealing out plain truths adapted to reach the very lowest condition of the intellect; schools in which the mere elements of learning are inculcated, the mere elements of decency and order,—not aiming at high attainment, but seeking to get the lowest of their kind step by step out of the depth of mere animal ignorance; preaching-houses of the plainest possible construction, such as the ragged and filthy can enter without rebukes from the very walls, much less from the crowded presence of beings they regard as altogether of another class from themselves."*

In America any man on any day, at any hour of the day, in any place, is at perfect liberty to instruct or to preach to any number of people who might think proper to avail themselves of his instructions or to listen to his addresses, without the smallest interruption from public authorities. They fear not the jealous eye of vigilant power,—they feel no alarm at the pillory or the Star Chamber; and the functionaries of justice are rather their security than dread. Christianity being here entirely free, and conscious of her beauty and strength, she goes forth, not as in countries where she is cramped and circumscribed, "bright as the sun, fair as the moon, and triumphant as an army with banners."

Much of the history of nations may be traced through the foundation and progress of their colonies. Each particular era has shown in the settlements of the time types of the several mother countries, examples of their systems, and the results of

* Tracts for the Times. By the Rev. Mr. Osborne.

their exigencies. At one time this type is of an adventurous, in another of a religious character; now formed by political, again by social influences. From the depth and durability of the impress an estimate may be formed of the strength of the first motives, and of the genius of the people from whom the emigration flows.

"The ancient colonies of Asia Minor displayed the characteristics of the mother country long after her state had become utterly changed. The Roman settlements in Italy raised upon the ruins of the subjugated nations a fabric of civilisation and power that can never be forgotten. The proud and adventurous, but ruthless spirit that distinguished the Spanish nation at the time of their wonderful conquest of the New World, is still exhibited in the haughty tyranny of Cuba, and the sanguinary struggles of the South American Republic. The French Canadian of to-day retains most or many of the natural sentiments of those who crossed the Atlantic to extend the power of France and of her proudest king. And still in the great Anglo-Saxon nation of the west, through the strife of aristocratic ambition, and amidst the toils and successes of an enormous commerce, we trace the foundations, overgrown, perhaps, but all unshaken, of that stern edifice of civil and religious liberty which the Pilgrim Fathers raised with their untiring labours and cemented with their blood."*

Mighty is the influence which the religious spirit has exerted over the population of this great Republic during the last century. Hence the enquiry is made in the report of the American Board of Foreign Missions, "How long will it be before we establish a synod on the shores of the Pacific Ocean? Already are our missionaries scattered over the whole of the United States east of the Mississippi, with the exception of one little valley of the north-east. They have crossed that river and are now beginning zealously to occupy that immense country which extends westward of it, from the Mexican Gulf to the British colonies on the north. Nay, more still; they have wandered over the whole continent, and in that New World of the west have begun to found a kingdom for God. What will our progress be ultimately? The spires of the churches along the shores of the Atlantic are illuminated with the light of the morning sun. Advancing over the country it shines upon them the whole day;

* Conquest of Canada, by Major Warburton.

and when it sets, its last rays shall rest upon these as they rise upwards along the shores of the Pacific Ocean."*

We have seen that it was the avowed principle of the Pilgrim Fathers that they came not to found a kingdom, but to extend the cause of Christ, so that America might, from its birth, have been called Immanuel's land, consecrated expressly to his service and glory.

It has been well said, that "when God would enlarge the theatre on which to display the riches of his grace, he caused a spirit of bold adventure to move upon the face of the stagnant waters of Europe, and found no rest till it brought forth a New World."† For by the very time of its discovery,—by the circumstances and manner of its first settlement,—by the character of its first colonists,—as well as by geographical position and capabilities, America was added to the domain of the world to make more room for the Church, and to originate a new fountain, from which should go forth streams of salvation to the ends of the earth. These were purposes having so much moral grandeur, that in comparison of them all political and commercial advantages are insignificant, and only incidental and subsidiary.

In the government of the great Disposer of events nothing is done without a reason, and that the wisest. The reduction of so vast a portion of the earth's surface under one sceptre, in addition to the considerations named, can scarcely fail to be regarded by every diligent interpreter of Scripture to be amongst the most obvious providential means of extending Christianity.

This appears to have been its destiny in the belief and hope of the Pilgrim Fathers;‡ and not less so in the eternal and efficient purposes of Jehovah. Hence the mind naturally enquires as to the probable religious influence which America will exert on the world in future years.

As the first efforts of civilisation were originally made on the banks of the Euphrates, the Tigris, and the Persian Gulf, where the ruins of Nineveh, Babylon, and Susa attest the early

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* Report of American Board of Foreign Missions, 1850.

† Reed's Hand of God in History.

‡ Thus in one of their own records: "It concerneth New England always to remember that they were originally a plantation religious, not a plantation of trade; and if any man make religion as twelve, and the world as thirteen, such an one has not the spirit of true New Englandmen."

sway of mighty empires, who can tell but that Columbia, in the spirit of her own institutions, may one day send forth her genius to kindle up the light of liberty in Asia, from whence the world was originally peopled, and to break the rayless night of despotism which now broods over that portion of the globe? Who shall say that it may not be her privilege again to plant the Cross where the crescent has so long prevailed, and thus to reflect back the light of revelation upon that region?

May we not discover in the prophecies of Scripture some obscure glances cast at America from the mount of vision, as if a dim consciousness existed in the minds of the prophets of the future relationship between that undiscovered land and Asia? For David says, "If I take the wings of the morning, and dwell in the uttermost parts of the WEST."* And Malachi, "From the rising of the sun even to the GOING DOWN OF THE SAME, my name shall be great among the Gentiles; and in every place incense shall be offered unto my name, and a pure offering."†

Moreover, since the Hebrews gave the name of islands to all countries beyond the sea, it is not improbable that to these islands of the west the words of Isaiah may refer, "Surely THE ISLES shall wait for me."‡ And again, "I will gather all nations and tongues; and they shall come, and see my glory. And I will set a sign among them, and will send those that escape of them unto the nations, to Tarshish, Pul, and Lud, that draw the bow; to Tubal, and Javan, to THE ISLES afar off, that have not heard my fame, neither have they seen my glory; and they shall declare my glory among the Gentiles."

The sublime conception here indicated of the coming era of universal righteousness and peace, when the sins and sufferings that now afflict and alienate mankind, and the fierce passions that now urge them to injustice, violence, and war, will be known only in the histories of other times, is a subject which no christian can contemplate but with feelings of deep and glowing interest. Already the horizon brightens with a light fuller than the dawn,—already has the harbinger of a glorious day appeared,—and although dark clouds may occasionally obscure his brightness, the Sun of Righteousness will still hold on his way until the whole earth be filled with his glory, and

* Psalm cxxxix. 9. "Of the west," so in the original.
† Mal. i. 11.
‡ Isaiah lx. 9; lxvi. 19.

every heart with his love. "The zeal of the Lord of hosts will perform this."

"Eternal Spirit! universal God!
Power inaccessible to human thought,
Save by degrees and steps which thou hast deign'd
To furnish—
Accomplish thou their number; and conclude
Time's weary course! Or if, by thy decree,
The consummation that will come by stealth
Be yet far distant, let thy word prevail;
Oh, let thy word prevail, to take away
The sting of human nature. Spread the law
As it is written in thy holy book
Throughout all lands: let every nation hear
The high behest, and every heart obey;
Both for the love of purity, and hope
Which it affords, to such as do thy will
And persevere in good, that they shall rise
To have a nearer view of Thee in heaven.
Father of good! this prayer in bounty grant,
In mercy grant it to thy wretched sons.
Then, nor till then, shall persecution cease,
And cruel wars expire. The way is mark'd,
The guide appointed, and the ransom paid."*

* Wordsworth.

CHAPTER XXVII.

CONCLUSION.

SEC. I. PROGRESS AND NATIONAL GREATNESS OF THE UNITED STATES UNDERSTOOD AND WONDERED.—An exhibition of the mighty effects of industry and perseverance. Her great and glorious future. Present danger to future prospects from the continuance of slavery. Slavery an evident incubus on her progress. Great injustice as well as impolicy of the system. Advancement of the United States, though vast, still infantile. Calculations of amount of population at different prospective periods. Probable dense population of the whole valley of the Mississippi, and North-West States, to the Rocky Mountains. Her vast magnitude and power, when densely peopled throughout her whole extent to the Pacific Ocean. This result not Utopian. Past and present progress confirmatory of its probable result. Prediction of anti-republican politicians and others of the certain dissolution of the Union, from the fate of the Ancient Republics and France. Great dissimilarity in the character and circumstances of those governments, nations, and people, &c. Alleged danger from collision between the Northern and Southern States on the slavery question. Daily diminishing probabilities of this result. Evidences. Abolition of slavery inevitable. Enquiry as to the policy of the nation in relation to this issue. Undoubted advantages of wise and just arrangements, because in harmony with Divine providence. Example of the consequences of injustice in the failure of ambitious projects in Russia.

SEC. II. The lessons of peace and amity past history and experience are designed to teach both America and England. The cultivation of friendship and good understanding between these two nations should be the constant aim of both. Promotion of concord among nations the most important of social theories. Opinion of Montesquieu. Great impolicy as well as inhumanity of war. Examples in both ancient and modern history. Uncertainty as to its results. Duty of England and America in relation to each other. Improved sentiment of each in regard to war. Evidences of mutual desire for harmony of operation. Mutual sympathy from obvious causes. Especial influence of religion in the promotion of charity and good-will. Chief causes of international prejudices and hostile feeling. Best means of counteracting and obviating them. Testimony of an English nobleman. Reflections.

SECTION I.

When we consider, as already set forth in these pages, the originally different characters of the several States of America when they were provinces of a more extended empire,—the causes which produced this variety of character,—the means that were in operation to perpetuate this variety,—and the end to which it was designed to be instrumental, it is a matter of astonishment that such a social and religious, as well as such a civil and political state exists in the United States, especially when we consider the influence that is exerted by the vast tide of emigration that is continually setting into them from almost all parts of the world.

America affords an astonishing proof of what industry and perseverance, labour and talent, may effect in a short period of time; while she has set to the world an admirable example of how much may be accomplished by such knowledge, energy of will, and utter self-devotion, as have been happily combined in the persons of many of her citizens.

From whatever point we contemplate America, whether the past, the present, or the future,—notwithstanding her slave system and her oppression of her aborigines, which may possibly one day prove a withering, blighting curse upon her progress,—"may heaven forefend the blow,"—she furnishes one of the sublimest objects that can attract the mind whether of a poet or of a religious or political philanthropist,—a mighty representative confederation, the abode of liberty, of enterprise, of knowledge, of morality, and of religion!

In every direction, as we have shown, unmistakable evidences appear of rapid progress and improvement. Where forests once stood, cities are reared as by magic; where the stagnant morass exhaled its baleful effluvia, the cultivated plain now smiles; where pathless tracts once spread themselves around, roads are now formed, bridges are constructed, and villages spring up. Day by day her magnificent forests are falling beneath the axe of the advancing pioneer of civilisation. Her vast inland seas, and interminable rivers, and stupendous cataracts,—her yet boundless prairies and untrodden forests,—her cities, with all the tumult of busy life, on the very verge of solitudes over which broods yet undisturbed the hush of ages,—and the mighty tide of living energy which pours through the valleys and over the uplands, crowded with the melancholy mounds where silently dwell the dead generations of the Red Man; in a word, the contrasts everywhere presented or suggested between a growing civilisation and a civilisation extinct, and by a soil, one-half of which is pervaded almost fearfully by a tumultuous rushing of nations towards an unknown but mighty destiny, while the other sits dark and lonely beneath the veil of a mysterious and impenetrable past, are all elements of a poetry with which England need not doubt that America will one day enrich the language that is common to them both.

Everywhere in America there is seen the youth of an invincible spirit, which seems destined by Providence to give, for thousands of years, life and animation to the world. Such, as we have seen, is the amazing increase of the population,

derived principally from natural increase, that, calculating at the same ratio as during the last ten years, which has been thirty-five per cent., the population in 1860 will amount to 32,000,000, for it was 25,841,000 on the 1st of January, 1853; and on a calculation generally admitted to be correct, the population doubles its amount every twenty-five years. It may therefore be safely estimated, that in the year 1900 a hundred millions of persons speaking the English language will inhabit these fertile and highly-favoured regions! There is nothing to prevent the United States from being as populous as any other part of the world; and supposing its population to reach the ratio at present existing in Europe, of thirty to a square mile, there would teem on her territories a population of two hundred and twenty millions of human beings!

But even this is a calculation now obsolete, as it supposes the States to be confined within the narrow limits of former days. We now see them enlarging their borders, and pouring the tide of population westward, year by year. M. de Tocqueville, speaking of the progressive settlement of America by the Anglo-Saxons, describes the latter as driven by the hand of God across the western wilderness at the average rate of seventeen miles per annum.

In the vast valley of the Mississippi alone, which is ten times as extensive as the valley of the Nile, there is said to be room for more than two hundred and seventy-five millions of people to live comfortably.

"Looking beyond to the very distant future," says Calhoun, in his report to the Memphis Convention, &c., "when this immense valley, containing within its limits 1,200,000 square miles; lying in its whole extent in the temperate zone, and occupying a position midway between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans; unequalled in the fertility and diversity of its productions; intersected by the mighty stream, including its tributaries, by which it is drained, and which supplies a continuous navigation of upwards of ten thousand miles, with a coast, including both banks, of twice that length; when this immense valley shall be crowded with population, and its resources fully developed, imagination itself is taxed in the attempt to realise the magnitude of its commerce."

The north-west States, which include Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, and the Minnesota territory, have an area of 375,250,000 square miles; and it is remarked of

them by the writer of the Report to the Senate, Mr. J. D. Andrews,—"When this last division shall become as densely peopled as the Middle States now are, it will contain a population, directly tributary to the trade of the lakes, of twenty-two millions of souls; and there is every reason to believe that the increase of population will be as rapid until that result shall be fully obtained as it has been since 1800. How wonderful and grand a spectacle will it then be to many, doubtless of those now born, by whom, at the commencement of the twentieth century, this lake country shall be seen supporting a population of so many millions! And what will be the amount and value of that trade, and the aggregate tonnage of that marine which has sprung up, in less than forty years, from nothing to 200,000 tons of steam and shipping?

In years to come the advancing industry of the population will extend itself over the prairies, transform them into a new paradise, and cause other and yet more beautiful flowers to spring up. Even the Rocky Mountains, in a distant age, may, like Switzerland, become the happy dwelling-place of a nation yet unborn. What will America be then, when she will be peopled from the Eastern Sea to the Mississippi,—from the northern Minnesota to the tropics,—and throughout the whole western country,—from the great Father of Waters to the Pacific Ocean!

And this is no Utopian vision. In the course of half a century the United States have actually quadrupled their population, and more than doubled the number of their States and the extent of their territory. Should the population progress for one century more as it has done even during the two last, and the Union continue unbroken, the number of its inhabitants would exceed 300,000,000. Such a people fronting on two oceans, with a temperate climate and so vast an expanse of country, must exert, under any circumstances, a mighty and ever-increasing influence over the globe.

It is not being too sanguine to predict that within the compass of a century her shores will count a hundred populous towns where senators will debate and poets sing; that every nook of her coast will be visited by vessels and steamboats, and connected by railroads, mail routes, and electric telegraphs; and that the fisheries in their ports will become an object of as much national importance as those now of Newfoundland.

The population doubling every twenty-five years, as it is generally allowed to do, it would amount in one hundred years,

after the same ratio of increase, to 288,000,000; or in one hundred and twenty-five years, to 570,000,000; in one hundred and fifty years, to more than the present population of the globe.

In a word, to take the result of one hundred years, viz.:—288,000,000, as the ultimatum of increase to which the resources of their soil would allow the population to advance, how incalculable will be both their influence and their resources!

But a European of great credit has asserted that the resources of the American continent, if fully developed, would afford sustenance to 3,000,000,000 of inhabitants, or four times the present population of the globe! The rising cloud appears no bigger than a man's hand, which in another generation will be sweeping over and altering the face of the whole civilised world.

As nations are not manufactured, but born of other nations, and nurtured in those peculiar arrangements of God's providence which are expressly adapted to such a result, it is the opinion of some that the prosperity of America will not be permanent; following the law which seems to govern both nations and individuals, and under which the one as the other have their struggling infancy,—their growth,—their heroic period,—their iron age of hardship and utility,—their manhood,—their silver age of luxury and refinement,—their golden age of art, and science, and literature,—their acme,—their decline,—their decay,—their final extinction, or else their dissolution into those fragmentary organisms from which spring up again the elements or seeds of future nationalities.

Others, again, aware of divisions and of frequent collisions of interest between the Northern and Southern States, have long predicted a dissolution of the Union, and the institution of independent governments over the whole of the vast continent from Maine to California, or at least a division into North and South. In addition to these elements of insecurity, the immense agricultural interest now rapidly springing up in the valley of the Mississippi is thought to be incompatible with the manufacturing interest now so greatly increasing in the seaboard States, especially since the two appear to be separated by that vast natural barrier—the chain of the Alleghanies, and further westward by the Rocky Mountains.

Many regard the Government of the United States as an aggregate of inharmonious parts, brought together by chance, without any organised centre,—a confederacy founded on prin-

ciples necessarily producing the wild convulsions of popular fanaticism,—a mode of government deemed impracticable, in the present imperfect state of human society, by many even of its friends; and Americans are asked, suspiciously, if their institutions in their past workings afford a guarantee of the permanence and continued prosperity of the Government? While others point to ancient republics as confirmatory of their hypothesis.

Let it be remembered that the Republic of America, as it exists, is a union of several States for mutual advantage and strength; each possessing the most ample and absolute power within itself to regulate every particular relating to mere local necessities; and that no new State loses its distinctiveness, it may be said, indeed, its *nationality*, by joining the Union, but that, however weak the new-comer into the federal family, the other States, for their own sake, protect its independence. Thus, while all enjoy the benefit, no partiality exists; while each pays but a mite, as it were, towards the general good, the good is enjoyed in common. The interest of each is therefore so interwoven with the prosperity of the Commonwealth, that none would willingly attempt the injury of the smallest part. The individuality of the States is the very life of the Union. If ever this principle of admission to a perfect equality of privileges, and to a complete participation of Government, is replaced by the subjection of conquered or voluntarily annexed territories to the whole federal Union, or to one particular State, or even by the least subservience to the parent Republic, then, indeed, serious danger would arise.

With regard to the ancient republics it must be observed, that there is an important distinction between the material of American strength and that of the commercial republics—Tyre, Carthage, Venice, and Genoa; and this, not merely in extent of territory, but especially in the diversity of its population. These ancient republics, unlike America, had neither sufficient territory nor large enough population to give them a permanent national existence. With America, as also with England, it is far otherwise. While England and America have a manufacturing population of many millions, they have a professional, a naval, and a most powerful, healthy, and daily increasing agricultural population. Of this last and most essential class to permanent power the famous old commercial republics were wholly destitute, and they therefore fell.

The most striking and characteristic contrast to be observed between at least the external character of the ancient republics and that of the United States, is to be found in the tendency of society in the ancient world, even in republics, to personify itself in great despotisms; whilst the tendency of society in America has ever been decidedly towards the improvement of the condition of the people, and the equality of rank and power among all its members.

America possesses every element which is required to insure a nation's greatness and stability.

Under the circumstances, therefore, at present existing, scarcely a doubt can be entertained, that instead of a dissolution of the Union, the empire of the United States will extend yet further; not, perhaps, by the force of armies, but by the moral influence of attraction—perhaps by means less honourable. Mexico, for instance, if not Cuba, longs to enjoy the peace and stability that she sees so near her; and as this may be obtained with perfect immunity to her independence by joining the Union, what a motive to her availing herself of the advantage! But we believe the destiny of this federation to lie yet further on; having annexed Mexico it will not be too great an effort to traverse the Isthmus, and by the same influence unite other nations. Thus empire upon empire, and federation upon federation will be drawn together, until the New World, from north to south, has yielded up her population, and the whole western hemisphere, from the Arctic Ocean to Cape Horn, enjoys the liberty and speaks the language of Great Britain.*

There was a period, indeed, when disruption was seriously apprehended, and it was prophesied that a separation was inevitable; such, however, is the intercourse throughout the whole length and breadth of the land by railroad communication, rendering the population greatly dependent upon each other and intimately interwoven, creating at the same time such an identity of interests throughout, that a separation is now highly improbable; while it is evidently the desire of the Americans generally

* "There can be no doubt that many an ardent Republican looks forward not only to Cuba but to the whole of North America. Nor, indeed, are the aspirations of some of them thus limited. 'I am no supporter of the principles advocated by young America,' said a Member of Congress, in Mr. Robinson's hearing, 'but still I am persuaded that in a few years the flag of the Union will wave over the whole Continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from Cape Horn to Labrador.'"—*Westminster Review, July*, 1855.

to preserve the Federal Union inviolate, at whatever sacrifice of feeling or of local interest. The preservation of the Union in its integrity is one of the strongest points of American nationality. This, says Captain M'Kinnon,* renders the maintenance of the present form of government for some time to come more certain than that of any government on the face of the earth; and "no one," says another author† of equal intelligence, and of still more recent experience, "no one who has lived for any length of time in the United States, with leisure to study their life, can fail to perceive that they are within themselves possessed of a common creative principle of life which is vital in the highest degree, and that this is their religious and civil consciousness." It cannot be dissembled, however, that there is one seriously disturbing element in their constitution which seriously menaces their continued unity.

"Yonder, upon a throne made of the affections of the slave-master, in the face of an indignant nation and of an offended God, sits slavery, horrible as a hag of hell; her face is brass,—her heart is stone,—her hand is iron; with that iron hand she wrings from the multiplied sufferings and labours of the hapless, hopeless children of Africa the wealth by which she is clothed in purple and fine linen, and fareth sumptuously every day; watching with unslumbering jealousy every ray that would enlighten the darkness of her kingdom, and frowning indignantly on every finger that would disturb the stability of her throne."‡

America has now, as is estimated, three and a half millions of slaves, and four hundred and thirty-three thousand six hundred and forty-eight persons of colour nominally free,§ the latter also occupying a socially degraded position. The presence of such an immense population, alien in blood and aspect, in the midst of their Republic, or rather in the midst of three hundred and fifty thousand of their immediate oppressors, in the southern provinces, is an awkward and a dangerous feature in their condition.

Slavery exists in about fifteen States, while another or two are sought to be added—the wild steppe lands of Nebraska and

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* Tour in America.

† Miss Bremer. ‡ Rev. Thomas M'Connell.

§ In 1855 there were about four millions of black and coloured persons in the United States; about three and a half millions of these are slaves, and half a million are free. There are now about three hundred thousand free coloured and black persons in the slave States, and about two hundred thousand in the free States.—*De Bow's Census*, p. 83.

Kansas, a district of country where the western Missouri pours its turbid waters along its perilous course, forming the eastern boundary of the savage western land of the Indian tribes, and extending eastward to the gigantic Mississippi, where heathendom still contends for dominion with Christianity.

"Slavery," says Lord Stanley, "cannot be permanent in the United States; the reason is, it is unjustifiable,—contrary to the universally accredited and honoured rules of morality, and it must therefore come to an end, not only in America but in Cuba, Brazils,—everywhere."

But what is to be done with the slaves if they are set at liberty, despised and downtrodden by almost the entire nation? Are they to grow up as a powerful alien people in the commonwealth, dangerous in their numbers, and doubly dangerous in their consciousness of wrong, and in the passions which might excite them to acts of vengeance?* Every year this state of vassalage is becoming more difficult to preserve. The public opinion of the world is having its influence upon the north if not upon the south; the slaves themselves, in spite of every effort to keep them back, are becoming more enlightened, and therefore more difficult to be kept in subjection; even the difference in race and colour—the great bulwark of slavery—is gradually breaking down. Already, as we have seen, the two races are being amalgamated, there being, as stated by the census of 1850, at that time above four hundred thousand (now five hundred thousand) mulattoes in the Union, and who are increasing in a corresponding ratio from year to year. Serious as is this question there is another still more so. Are the slaves to go on increasing in a geometrical ratio?—half a million on the first establishment of the government; seven hundred thousand in 1700; three million two hundred thousand in 1850; six millions in 1875; twelve millions in 1900; and so on, doubling themselves every quarter of a century through an infinitude of years? Is the policy of Congress wise? Here is a canker at the root of the Republic extending its ramifications south and west.

Connected with this question is yet another, hardly less important to America generally, yet more vitally so to the Southern States:—what will become of them in the event of an indefinite

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* According to the last census, 1850, the exact number of slave-holders is 347 525, one-fifth of whom own each a single slave; nearly one-half less than five slaves; and less than 80,000 more than 50 slaves.—*De Bow's Census*, p. 95.

postponement of freedom to the slave? Already, as the natural consequence of the violence and oppression inseparable from that unnatural and iniquitous system, the whole Southern frontier, from Maryland to Louisiana, indicates a social system in the last stage of decrepitude,—a soil irrecoverably impoverished, —and a proprietary fast verging towards bankruptcy. Already, in Virginia, naturally rich and beautiful, there is a growing impoverishment, notwithstanding that large sums are realised by the individuals who rear human stock for the more southern plantations. In the partially deteriorated state of that fine old domain, and its apparent incapability of keeping pace with the more prosperous communities of the north, it may be said to approximate to the physical and moral condition which disfigured Italy in the second century. And are both public and private interest and honour powerless to destroy the fascination, or to inflict the death-blow on the demon that thus preys on the very vitals of the Republic? Or is the united power of the commonwealth too impotent to protect it against the danger of annihilation? And is history to be an endless series of repetitions? Can not America decipher the hidden mystery of the double fall of Italy, and learn to read the signs of the times, that she may avoid the fate to which her errors have brought her; or can it be possible that experience has read its lessons to her in vain? What will America do to avert the danger? The highest intellects of Europe are looking with breathless wonder at the anomalous position of the United States, and for the solution of this problem. Amidst all the glowing anticipations of the future we have painted, and in the face of her past great and rapid progress as a nation, there sits the terrific spectre—human slavery,—let us remind her that it was this Moloch that destroyed the old civilisation of Egypt, Greece, and Rome, and why not that of America? Let not the American people be vaingloriously dazzled at the vastness of their acquisitions, and at the rank to which Providence has raised them, and thus be impelled into a continued course of action at once impolitic and unjust. No longer let the advocates for the perpetuity of southern "domestic institutions" make expediency their god; no longer let them adhere to the policy of their country "right or wrong," nor neglect all moral considerations while studying its aggrandisement; much less in relation to this important question let them act as though they have "no faith in the right," nor in the moral retribution of nations.

That God is a God of providence,—even in the minutest circumstances of life directing and controlling the government of the world,—few among them will deny; then let them not forget that that Providence never permits the laws of nature to be outraged with impunity, and that if they much longer delay to put away the monster evil from amongst them nature will surely vindicate her own laws and restore the credit of her own wise and equitable administration, to the lasting ruin of the nations that have abused her.

Let not America, in her pride and fancied security, disdain these admonitions. Let her remember that often amongst the elements of strength there is a principle at work which eventually shrouds in darkness the brightest hopes of ambition; and that after all, like her native aloe, that blooms not till the end of life, she, too, may blossom but to die!

But great as has been the progress of America hitherto, she is still, as it were, in an infantine and transitorial state of being. Even society here is in childhood;—education in morals and politics may be said to have only just commenced;—two centuries only have elapsed since all her dominions were a pathless wilderness.

She has still many a dark, silent, untrodden forest of unknown extent where the hardy settler has never yet awoke the slumbering echoes with the ringing blow of the axe,—many a rolling prairie whose virgin soil the ploughshare has never yet disturbed,—many woods and forests through which agricultural produce has never yet been hurried on the railroad car,—and many a lake where the waterfowl have never yet been startled by the sails of commerce. She has still vast deserts where alternate deluge and drought are forming the basis of a future region of fertile ground; forest-hidden rivers are still waiting the hand of man to reduce them to practical uses, and which the geological processes are daily materially altering and improving. Her innate elements of strength and progress, as also the genius of her people to turn them to profitable account, are comparatively undeveloped; while her long line of insular and continental coast, broken and penetrated by gulfs and bays, which form harbours of every degree of capacity and security, from the open roadstead to the land-locked port in which the navies of the world might ride in safety, is still comparatively unoccupied.

Consider, also, the splendid climate of the United States, adapted to every constitution, and which seems fitted for every description of vegetation and of animal life,—its geographical

position and extent,—its mighty appliances of steamboat navigation and railroad travelling,—its already vast, and still rapidly increasing population, placed under such circumstances of rapid communication and centralisation as to be equal, perhaps, to half as many more in any other kingdom; while growing civilisation is combining many conflicting forces,—is still bringing out beneficial issues,—the public mind advancing to a better understanding of the elements of national prosperity and the laws of national life, and the increasing discovery, discussion, and propagation of true principles of all kinds, preparing the way for a a still more happy condition of the masses,—all pointing out America as destined to play an important part in the future history of the world. And European power, in passing into her hands, comes to one people; the hundreds of millions that must one day inhabit her vast regions will be one, having one language, one literature, one religion, and one common soul. This is a unity which mere political divisions, should they unhappily occur, cannot destroy. That a people thus situated must exert a dominant influence on the world is unavoidable. Their facilities for the acquisition of wealth, for intercourse with all parts of the globe, and the restless enterprise of her population, are all so many means by which America will be brought to influence the character and destinies of other sections of the world.

It is evident, therefore, that this country, from its physical and local advantages, as well as from the character of its population and the nature of its institutions, must, in the common course of events, have greater influence on the human family than any other nation that has ever existed.

The contemplation of the striking picture which America presents of vigorous and successful enterprise pervading every department of commerce and industry, every pursuit and movement in which her population are engaged, can scarcely be dismissed without instituting a comparison between her and some of the great European governments, particularly Russia.

Russia, with her sixty or eighty millions of population, and vast extent of territory, capable of producing every commodity requisite for ensuring the greatness of a nation, suggests itself for comparison from the present eventful crisis of her history. Had her government and landholders, instead of spending the whole of her revenue and capital in barbaric pomp and wars of aggression; in studding her shores and frontiers with fortresses

and batteries,—had they but turned their attention to the improvement of her navigable rivers; to the construction of a system of railroads; had the appliances of science and machinery been brought to aid in the cultivation of the soil, and in her domestic manufactures; to what a height of greatness and prosperity might she not have attained at the present moment, instead of being what she has made herself, the plague and pest of Europe! With every requisite for social and domestic abundance and prosperity and wealth, she has had in her possession the means of forming a powerful mercantile marine, which would, by this time, have been a vigorous competitor for the commerce and the carrying trade of the world; whilst by an improved system of roads and inland navigation, she might have made herself the connecting link between Western Europe and the interior of Asia. But Russia has preferred the path of ambition. She has aimed at grasping new territory, and neglected the more peaceful and wiser policy of developing the resources which she already possessed; and, as the result, her fall from her high position among the nations was inevitable. But while America, in a general sense, contrasts so favourably with her northern rival, there is one particular in which there is a close resemblance, viz., in their both holding such vast realms of fertile undeveloped land, and both having such a mania for territorial aggrandisement. Like Russia, the territorial idea haunts the imagination of America, as it did also the nations of antiquity, and as it did France under Napoleon I.; but as with the war nations of old, and France, and more recently Russia, the sword-won empire of the United States, should she ever obtain it, would inevitably crumble into ruins, and a new and a better one spring out of them, or she would fall away from the face of the world, and only be a colossal power that grew too rapidly, and died, like an overgrown giant, of sheer atrophy. Hence Mr. Cass had the manliness and moral courage, in his place in the Senate House, to urge the necessity of Congress confining its efforts to the proper development of the national resources, and opposing all projects of annexation and extension.

SECTION II.

And what are the lessons which these circumstances are calculated to teach, especially to both America and England? They all form so many urgent demands on both countries to

promote, by every practicable expedient, the development of their resources, amid unbroken peace, amity, and intercourse. For it must not be forgotten, as a consideration of policy, that the position of the United States, in addition to the well known valour and enterprise of her sons, is such as to render her to England either a valuable friend or a very dangerous enemy. At the same time the interests of England and America, in relation to trade and commerce, must be remembered in this question. It appears that the value of our imports from America are nearly thirty millions; while our exports somewhat exceed twenty-two millions. This trade far surpasses that existing separately with British India and Australia; and is even more extensive than that of England with the whole continent of Europe. The imports of large cotton alone in 1854 amounted to £17,274,077. The article of import next in value is wheat-meal, £2,703,793; after that maize, £1,971,280; their corn, £1,487,725.

The Union is our customer in return for iron to the value of £7,000,000 and upwards; manufactured cottons, £3,500,000 and upwards; woollens, upwards of £3,000,000: slops nearly £1,500,000; not to mention the traffic already existing and in prospect between the United States and the West India Islands.

The consumption of sugar in the United States has been amazing, and is daily increasing to a degree that will render her entirely dependent upon these Islands, sugar and coffee cultivation not being likely to succeed in her southern provinces. During the past year about nine hundred and fifty millions of pounds were consumed, equal to four hundred and twenty-eight thousand tons; averaging forty pounds for every man, woman, and child in the Union.

It will thus be seen that while America grows cotton for England, England manufactures her goods for America. While America buys from six to seven millions worth of iron from England, England expends an almost equal sum with America in the purchase of the necessaries of life in flour, grain, salted provisions, tobacco, and furs, proving the fallacy of the epigram that "what is one man's gain is another man's loss." It may, indeed, be said that America feeds England as the Roman daughter fed her parent. Fifteen hundred ships traverse the ocean between England and America, measuring upwards of a million of tons, exclusive of steamers; while two mail steamers leave both countries every week, if not one every alternate day, from New York and Boston, and Liverpool and Southampton.

What immense interests in peace, on both sides of the Atlantic, are represented by these figures and considerations! We have whole populations in mutual dependence, bound up together for weal or woe.

Many fond ties and sympathies also there must ever be between the nations founded on ancient memories and a brotherhood of ages, which hours of passion are not lightly to dissolve; and the personal pride of each in whatever the other shall achieve that is great and glorious, is a motive of attachment which neither of the two nations should be so covetous and ambitious as to disregard.

There may indeed exist a rivalry between these two nations,—incomparably the greatest in some respects that ever flourished on our planet; but let it not be a rivalry on the battle field, but a rivalry honourable and generous in spirit, noble in aim, and peaceful in conduct; a competition in the arenas of science, industry, and religion, resulting in profit and glory to both competitors in the amicable struggle, and conducing to the general improvement of the whole human race.

Exclusive nationalities differ little from sects distinguished for their bigotry; while true patriotism, like true religion, the more faithful is its devotion to its great object of love and worship, the more largely and freely does it breathe the spirit of charity and goodwill to all mankind.

The cultivation and improvement of friendship and good understanding between Great Britain and the United States ought to form one of the most important duties of a Minister Plenipotentiary to that country. While at no former period of their history has the subsistence of friendly relations between them been of more vital importance, it is gratifying to know that at no time have those relations appeared to rest upon a firmer foundation than at present.

There is nothing, perhaps, for which the present age is more remarkable than for the rapidity with which international antipathies of the duration of centuries are disappearing before the cosmopolitan and christian feeling that all men are brethren, sprung from one common parent. This is a feeling that if cultivated would do much towards bringing about that happy period when the nations will learn war no more, and when national animosity shall be as completely obliterated from the world as lines traced upon the sand on the sea shore are effaced by the rising of the tide. On the other hand, whatever may

tend to militate against so truly laudable a spirit is highly censurable, and it is the duty of all who call themselves Christians to treat it with marked disapprobation. Every one should attempt to efface in every mind that animosity between one people and another which frequently leads to war, and which is so opposite to the religious sentiment of the love of our neighbour, which recognises no limits either of race or of country.

Multitudes of men of all nations are now sufficiently enlightened and civilised to recognise the supremacy of the moral faculties, and to despise an appeal to brute force for the settlement of national quarrels, substituting, as more just and rational means, grave and solemn arbitration, in accordance with the ordinations of the great law of christian faith and practice. In the present age there is no peace that is not honourable; there is no war that is not dishonourable. The true honour of a nation is to be found only in deeds of justice and in the happiness of its people, all of which are inconsistent with the principle, as with the wholesale waste and havoc of war.

The promotion of concord among nations is the most important of our social theories. Even Montesquieu says, "The princes of the earth who form among themselves so many ephemeral, and frequently useless conventions, ought at length to contract a pacific, durable alliance, which would be most favourable to the wellbeing of all nations."

War does violence to all the sentiments of humanity; it has constantly led to all the misfortunes and calamities that befal the world, and has frequently caused the ruin and fall of empires. Persia and Egypt sank into the tomb on which Greece built her temple. The different States of Greece, after fighting great battles, after having long torn each other to pieces, submitted to the yoke of Philip and Alexander of Macedon, then succumbed to the prowess of the Romans, and finally becoming a province without a name, fell under the scimetar of the Turk.

Rome once aspired to the conquest of the world, calling herself its Queen, but she fell into gradual decay from the Republic to the Empire,—becoming weak by continually extending herself,—grasping with her legions the world, which escaped her,—until from being its mistress she became its slave,—and from being the universal sovereign, was reduced to a giant corpse, trampled under the feet of barbarians,—of barbarians who in

the Saturn were finally vanquished by the civilisation of modern Europe.

Poland has been rolled in the dust by a despotic power; but the Emperor sitting at Petersburg can no more forbid the birth of the yet unborn nation than the vulture perched upon the fallen oak-trunk can forbid the oak from growing beneath his feet.

"The march of eternal justice is sure."

England never had greater or nobler men guiding her destinies than during the Commonwealth, yet the intolerance of some and the ambition of others ruined the Republic.

Providence leaves not the innocent unprotected nor the guilty unpunished. All injustice must sooner or later terminate in revolution.

In the late Mexican struggle with old Spain, the leaders, though all of Spanish descent more or less pure, declared that they were the avengers of the insults and injuries offered to Montezuma,—a circumstance to be pondered by all advocates of territorial aggrandisement.

Nature herself supplies testimonies against systematic oppression, and the fixed desire to break the chains of systematic monopoly

"Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and *speech* in everything."

It may be instructive to refer also to the tragic end of almost every conqueror. Call to mind that most of them, after having filled the Old World with the terrible report of their names, died without leaving a throne or a State;—Alaric, Timour, Ghengis Khan, have passed over the earth like hurricanes, and left no remains of their conquests, whilst Cyrus, Alexander, and the first Cæsars, have bequeathed but unknown ruins and names more or less tarnished by the crimes they committed.

"Sic transit gloria mundi."

It may be said of each as of Charles XII., who fell before the walls of Frederickshall,—

"He left his name, at which the world turned pale,
To point a moral and adorn a tale."

The same truth is to be observed of the great Napoleon,—that his career, originating out of the dictates of the merest selfishness, and an utter disregard for all the principles

which lie at the foundation of human happiness and [illegible] progress, when these stood in the way of his designs,—came to an unnatural end. This system of conquest, terrible as were its immediate effects, was self-destructive and ruinous to its author.

> "Though more than half the world was his,
> He died without a rood his own;
> And borrowed from his enemies
> Six feet of ground to lie upon."

Rapacious invaders were all these men who enslaved nations under the pretence of giving them freedom, and whilst loudly proclaiming the rights of men, only allowed those rights to be exercised according to their own theories or caprice!

One of the high lessons of history is to show how uncertain is the fate of arms. The loss of a battle may lead to the loss of a State; the nationality of a people may perish in the combat of a day. Frequently fortuitous circumstances called chance have alone settled the fate of battles. War impoverishes everything, even victory. Prolonged success ruins the conqueror; reverses come, and the world always escapes the grasp of the invader. The lust of conquest often inflicts upon the victors, as well as upon the vanquished, a physical and a moral ruin.

The slavery to which the Spaniards reduced the Aztecs was not more degrading than the barbarism with which they so thoroughly imbued themselves. While their bravery broke down the spirit of their antagonists, their triumphs completely destroyed all moral courage in themselves.

The history of Spain records wondrous instances of valour rising to almost superhuman daring,—of empires won, such as it had not entered into the imagination of the conquerors to contemplate,—of wealth acquired which might have sated avarice itself,—and of glories beside which all the victories of modern warfare shrink into insignificance. How ends the career thus gloriously opened? The withering hand of monopoly falls upon the victors and vanquished alike. Spain declines the moment she reaches the pinnacle of her greatness; the colonies break away from their parent State, and the descendants of those settlers who owed their broad lands to the valour of Cortes are found tearing his mouldering bones from their sepulchre in revenge for his having brought their native land under the influence of Spanish tyranny. Let us then read in the history of Spain the great truth which winds up the annals of all con-

quest and sword-bought acquisitions. Whenever past glory is made an excuse for present wrong it is sure to lead to future degradation.

Alas, how often has it happened that even while nations have been congratulating themselves on the success of their arms, they have made the unwelcome discovery that victory has been more ruinous than defeat! It is not the war of arms that profits in the long run; it is the peaceful struggle of rival industry and commerce. This alone will be always compensative. The periods in which industry is pursued under the protecting shadow of repose,—and thought, and genius find room for their illimitable expansiveness in a comfort and sense of dignity unknown to times of political commotion and convulsion inspired by the lunacy of the hour—these are the periods of true national prosperity and glory.

There is no judgment more heavy than that of the sword, and no outward blessing more precious than that of civil peace. There are no interests that appertain to human nature which do not identify the people of every country, clime, and colour; and naturally tend to their unity. As God is one, so by the constitution of his intelligent creation all his "offspring" ought to be united in all the oneness of a single family, with one feeling to prompt, and one principle to govern.

Let America and England especially unite in applying their zeal and their efforts to extinguish national hatreds by re-kindling everywhere the flame of christian virtues, to secure the universal and permanent triumph of what may be called the cause of God and of humanity,—the holy cause, in which are involved all the wants of the world, the prosperity of every people, and from henceforth the interests of all governments and kings. Let them continue to offer the noble example of two of the mightiest nations of the earth united by indissoluble ties of mutual love and confidence, maintaining inviolate the basis of the public welfare—Order and Liberty.

There are two opposite descriptions of character under which mankind may be generally classed,—the *Heroic* and the *Christian*. The one possesses vigour, firmness, resolution; is daring and active, quick in its sensibilities, jealous of its fame, eager in its attachments, inflexible in its purpose, violent in its resentments. The other is meek, yielding, forgiving, prompt to act for the honour of God and the happiness of men, yet willing to suffer; silent and gentle under rudeness and insult;

suing for reconciliation where others would demand satisfaction; giving way before impulsive aggression, conceding and indulgent to the prejudices and intractability of those with whom it has to deal.

The former of these characters has ever been the favourite of the world. It is characteristic of those whom the world is pleased to designate *great* and *noble*. There is a kind of dignity in such attributes which almost universally commands respect. The latter is regarded as poor-spirited, tame, and abject. Yet the latter is with the Great Founder of Christianity the subject of his commendation, his precepts, his example; while the former is so in no part of its composition. No two things can be more opposite in their nature and tendencies than these two descriptions of character. If the christian disposition were universal, the world would be a society of friends; if the heroic disposition were universal, it would produce a scene of general contention, which would lead to the annihilation of society and of the world.

As it is with individuals, so with nations. The *Heroic idea reigns*; and while this continues, little approximation will be made towards a state of universal peace; but let the christian feeling be cultivated, and the prediction of prophecy, already referred to, will soon become the chronicle of fact: "And they shall beat their swords into ploughshares, and their spears into pruning hooks; nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more."*

As already intimated, America, like England, is the depository of the christian oracles and the guardian of the christian faith; and their united flags, however glorious their past triumphs, have yet a higher, a nobler prominence to attain. It is evidently the high mission of England and America united to redeem and elevate mankind, not only by showing that the spirit of our more christian times lives in the political institutions to which they give birth,—not only by showing that the most illustrious attribute of their unexampled sway is the principle of benevolence,—that knowledge goes forth with it,—that tyranny shrinks before it,—that in its magnificent progress it abates the calamities of nature,—that it plants the desert,—that it civilises the savage,—but chiefly, what England can already say, but not America, that it "STRIKES THE FETTERS FROM THE SLAVE."

* Isaiah ii. 4. Micah iv. 3.

Nor is this all which these two mighty nations seem destined to accomplish in the purposes of Jehovah. While a community of sentiments, a community of principles, and a community of interests all combine with the great teachings of Christianity to demonstrate that there is but one human family, of which nations are severally the members, requiring, therefore, from every man an earnest, active, and practical concern in the well-being of every other;—while both are rising thus rapidly into greater and greater importance in regard to the transactions of modern and future history, and necessarily in regard to all the interests of the human race;—it is but natural to suppose that in the present circumstances of the church it is part of the Divine plan to assign a large portion of the instrumentality to our transatlantic brethren. It would appear, indeed, from the very composition of the States, as already noted, that America is specially designed, in conjunction with England, for the development of a plan of Providence, fraught with mercy and grace to future generations, and that God has given a call to *both* to unite indissolubly for its accomplishment.

It is an encouraging sign of the times that whilst Rome is putting forth great efforts, and summoning all her energies for another great conflict with the true Gospel, God has given to Protestant England and Protestant America such vast extension and power. Already Great Britain and the United States possess nearly one quarter of the habitable earth, and govern nearly two hundred millions of its inhabitants,—a fifth of the human race. The colonial world is theirs; the commerce of the world is chiefly in their hands. What can this indicate but that God has not only a great work for them to do on behalf of humanity, but a great part to perform in the upbuilding and enlargement of His kingdom in the world. Their highest mission is to unite their energies to carry liberty and salvation to the prostrate millions inhabiting both hemispheres,—they are God's instruments, destined, there is every reason to believe, to spread the glad tidings of the Gospel to the uttermost ends of the earth. United, then, in one destiny, may they never be insensible to their lofty privileges, and never forfeit their high estate.

> "Together let them tread the ample field,
> Try what the open what the covert yield."

And may the concluding lines of the same poem express the modest sentiments of each,—

"And while along the stream of time thy name
Expanded flies, and gathers all its fame,
Say, shall my little barque attendant sail,
Pursue the triumph and partake the gale?"

The champions of peace and christian philanthropy will be crowned with honour by posterity,—they will have a diadem infinitely more glorious than the laurel that encircles the brow of the hero and the conqueror; and these worthy sons, in conjunction with her gift of freedom to her slaves, will reflect upon America a glory yet wanting to her in the eyes of all the civilised nations of the world.

We have said that the rulers of the most civilised portions of the earth have at length begun to learn their true interest, and to show a disposition to cultivate the virtues of peace and amity; that they have begun to have improved ideas of each other through more regular intercourse; that they have already begun in some degree to decline from the worship of nationalities, and that the exercise of the amenities of civilised life has, to a considerable extent, united their hearts and harmonised their interests. Among other pleasing evidences of harmony of co-operation in the accomplishment of the benevolent objects of peace is this, that the government of the United States has fully carried out commercial reciprocity with England, and with her has guaranteed the neutrality of the passage to the Pacific by the Lake of Nicaragua, thus making it free to all nations. We might also mention the generous conduct of Congress in relation to Lieutenant Maury's important discoveries and observations.

More recently, among other expressions of courtesy and good will, the House of Representatives of the United States adopted a bill for reducing the duty on imports, attaching to it a civil and diplomatic appropriation bill, and passed it by a large majority. By this new tariff about twenty articles that have hitherto paid duty are now admitted duty free.

A committee was some time since appointed by Congress to consider the subject of a prime meridian. This committee courteously recommended that the Greenwich zero of London should be preserved for the convenience of navigation; and that the meridian of the National Observatory at Washington should be adopted by the authority of Congress as its first meridian on the American continent for defining accurately and permanently the territorial limits; and for advancing the science of astronomy in America.

Nor must the recent Reciprocity Treaty between the United States and Canada be forgotten among the evidences of a better future understanding between the two nations,—a treaty by which America is allowed the free navigation of the St. Lawrence and the canals, and an equal right to the fisheries, in return for similar advantages to England. British vessels are admitted into American canals, and English subjects are permitted to fish in American waters to the thirtieth parallel of north latitude. This commences a new era in the history of the relations of the United States with the British colonies, infusing new vigour into the commercial intercourse with each other. The commerce with Canada being now almost as free from embarrassment as that between neighbouring States of the Union, forms a strong bond by which to secure future amicable relations with the parent kingdom.

This reciprocity of commercial intercourse is another step of progress in the right direction. May such concessions be abundantly multiplied; may they become general! Indeed, let America adopt the same enlightened policy towards England and all her colonies, not only for the moral advantages that would thereby result, but also from motives of self-interest; for it is shrewdly calculated that by still adhering to the restrictive usages that have so long fettered the trading interests of the world, she will lose at least seven million pounds sterling per annum.*

That a feeling of amity and hearty good-will toward America exists generally in England admits not of a question, and that this feeling is reciprocated by the wisest and best men in the United States is equally evident. The unprincipled and reckless among the public journals in England do not represent the mass of the population; still less do similar prints express the public sentiment of America. It was said by one of the most popular journals in New York,† some years since, when a French invasion of some portion of the British empire was thought probable, "that the mere announcement of such an occurrence stirred the heart of the great body of the American people. They declared that in such an event, whether England asked it

* The Government of the United States imposes a heavy protective duty on foreign importations, under the delusive plea of its being beneficial by keeping money in the country.

† New York Tribune.

or not, the waters around the British coasts would swarm with clipper ships and ocean steamers, and America would cry out for alliance, offensive and defensive, with the home of their fathers. Once awakened, this would be the deepest, wildest passion that has agitated this country since the war of independence." England is the parent and asylum of European liberty, and there is not an American who is not bound by every conceivable sympathy to the cause of *the people* all over the world. All instruction,—all historic association,—all patriotic virtue,—all national pride and vanity,—all the influences of every kind to which he is subject, from his cradle upwards, combine to render the conception of political despotism wholly monstrous in the eyes, and almost incredible to the understanding of an American.

There is no point in his mental structure on which sympathy with the enemies of England could fasten, while every idea that has ever been precious to the race, and every emotion that stirs within their soul, is on the side of England.

There are thus deep philosophical as well as political reasons why the closest bond should exist between the English and the American people, in their political equally with their civil and religious relations. And England daily continues to people large states in America, where, by a common language, commercial connections, and the multiplied reciprocities of affection, the people maintain an essential, a perpetual union with the parent country.

The sentiments expressed by the President of the United States in reply to an address presented to him, in the year 1852, by Her Majesty's plenipotentiary, Mr. J. F. Crumpton, on delivering his credentials, are in perfect unison with the sentiments and feelings we advocate.

"Our forms of government," says the President, "differ; but, as you have well said, we are kindred nations, acknowledging a common ancestry, speaking a common language, and have a joint inheritance in those enduring monuments of literary genius by which the noblest sentiments and wisest maxims of law and liberty are indelibly stamped upon the minds of nations. We, Sir, have inherited from Great Britain the principles of 'Magna Charta,' the Trial 'by Jury,' and the 'Habeas Corpus;' and while we hope we have extended the principle of liberty, I am free to admit that its germs are to be found in those great principles of the British constitution. These great principles

are enjoyed in a higher degree by the subjects and citizens of our respective countries than by those of any other in the world. I trust that they may never be hazarded by another conflict; and I am happy to assure you that nothing shall be wanting on my part to maintain the most cordial relations with your own; and in the performance of this duty, alike beneficial to both countries, I am sure I shall have your cordial co-operation."

Thus the sympathy which binds the two nations is based on a much broader foundation than mere political and commercial interests. It takes its rise from something more ennobling. While the coal and iron of England, and the cotton and other raw materials of the United States are not to be underrated as instruments of wealth and promoters of civilisation at home and abroad,—while the same blood flows in the veins of the people of both countries,—while they speak the same language and own the same descent, and have the same feelings, sentiments, manners, fashions, and pursue the same social amusements, and while thousands of American citizens cling to the sympathies, to the feelings, and to the memories of the mother land, from the sea-board to the frontier settlements, this is the noblest and most spiritual bond of union, that they profess the same faith, have the same institutions, are actuated by the same high impulses, and are woven into the same tissue by innumerable private friendships and alliances.

This sympathy of race and religious feeling, quite irrespective of their national greatness, should make an Englishman proud of the American people, and induce him to regard them as an object of study and of interest rather than of satire, of emulation rather than of envy.

Between these two great nations, peace and goodwill should be preserved at the risk of everything but good faith and national honour,—at the risk of everything, it should be said, but the most precious national rights and liberties. And it is gratifying to know that human skill and ingenuity are largely contributing, amongst other agencies, to the permanent establishment of union. The greatest mechanical power of the age, —an important agent in civilisation,—steam, by uniting the distant portions of Europe and America, is consequently binding in ties of friendship and friendly commerce the most distant States, and will render them naturally desirous of peace, while the terrible impetus it gives to the destructive power of armaments renders wars more unfrequent because more dreaded.

It is deeply to be regretted that very recently grave differences have arisen between the British and American cabinets. The principal causes appear to be a desire on the part of America to possess Cuba—the settlement by England of the Honduras frontier—and the recent English enlistment for the Foreign Legion. But as diplomacy has again proved itself of value, and the nations themselves have not lost their reason, these differences have happily been adjusted without an appeal to arms. Both nations are free, both are civilised, both are educated, both of one race, and under governments which differ little from each other. Neither is carried away by a lust of military glory; and the enterprise of the one is the prosperity of the other. Between such communities an armed conflict, always odious and destructive, would be a thousand times more revolting than between any other nations,—would be as unnatural as a civil war,—as unnatural as it would be impolitic. It would be a mutual fratricide, dividing the Anglo-Saxon race against itself; while its practical results would be disastrous to both to a degree which language cannot describe; it would be such a calamity as might make "the angels weep," and would assuredly provoke the just retribution of the Almighty. At the same time war between two such nations (as it is now between all civilised States) would not be a war of conquest, but only a species of violent arbitration, and would therefore be of no advantage to the conqueror.

Let it never be said that the parent has devastated the fair inheritance of the child, or that the child has destroyed the property of the parent; but rather that the energy, enterprise, and moral greatness which mark the character of both nations will be used to build up and not to pull down the commercial prosperity of each, and leave it as a lasting monument,—the monument of the peace they have so well begun, to the perpetuation of their mutual renown.

Among the usual means of fostering international prejudices, and keeping up a constant irritation between countries whose truest interest it is to preserve amicable relations with each other, none are more offensive or effectual than bitter national songs and the satirical misrepresentations and caricatures of interested or prejudiced tourists and public journalists.

Some men can discern nothing of interest or grandeur away from the soil that gave them birth; but the true lover of his country, grateful for, and rejoicing in her elevation, can frankly

and cordially admire and delight in the progress and advancement achieved by other nations,—can see the race of honour run by her competitors without grudge or envy of the winner,—can feel the thrill and glow of admiration in his heart, whether it beat for English or American success. Thousands of the best of England's sons rejoice in bearing honest testimony and in doing honour to the greatness of their kindred race; while thousands more, in whose heart glows the same fire that burnt so brightly in the bosoms of the Pilgrim Fathers, feel that the more faithful they are to the great object of their love and worship, the more freely must they cherish the spirit of charity and good-will for all mankind.

So, while their mutual wants and mutual faith cement a mutual affection, let the smile that plays on the countenance of friendship light up such a glow of benevolent sunshine, that the traveller, in passing through these countries respectively, may gratefully receive hospitalities ungrudgingly given, and with a welcome that shows in the eye and the heart the existence of an affectionate and cordial brotherhood!

It must not, however, be concealed, that while it is so highly important and desirable that cordiality and good-will should ever exist between Great Britain and the United States, yet, until America abolishes her slavery, it is in vain to hope for an *intente cordiale*. Let this plague-spot be wiped away,—this almost only root of bitterness be destroyed,—and by such an effort of self-sacrifice and patriotism as would be thus exhibited not only would America be immediately placed in the highest position among the nations of the earth,—not only would she become, like England, the cherished abode of freedom, the centre of civilisation, the nursery of benevolence, the Pharos of the world, —not only would she become at once a refuge for the oppressed and a terror to the oppressor, and successfully achieve the high destiny designed her,—but then, also, an Anglo-Saxon alliance would be formed, more powerful and more vital, because more natural, than that now existing between England and France. Then the sympathy, in action and in feeling, between the two members of the great Anglo-Saxon family would be but the prelude to the meeting of the nations,

"In the Parliament of man,—the Federation of the world;"—

then the British lion "shall roar for a defence around the tents of Judah," while the eagle of America will arise and "flutter over her, and spread abroad her wings."

A rupture between the two countries would be the saddest affliction which could befall our race in either hemisphere. And our American brethren may collect from the most patriotic and best organs of public opinion in England how much such a collision would there be deplored.

This feeling does not arise from any low, sordid apprehension of the consequences in a mere pecuniary point of view, but from a humane dread of the horrors and insanity which such a fratricidal war would evoke.

The most sensible and rational people in both countries would be the first to raise their voices against an appeal to arms until other means of settling the quarrel had been exhausted. It seems certain, indeed, that whatever may be the vapouring spirit indulged in by the filibustering section of the community, and the supercilious banter of some of our English journals, nothing that can possibly lead to a hostile conflict between them will be permitted by the really patriotic and independent portion of either nation.

To the European despots nothing, probably, would be more satisfactory than to witness the two freest and greatest nations on the globe,—the last asylums of liberty and equality,—shedding their blood about some paltry point of etiquette or some worthless portion of territory.

As the preservation and promotion of amity between the two nations cannot but be the earnest wish of every lover of his species, of order, of advancing civilisation, and of religion, let it be the aim of all, in every possible way, to make their fraternisation on both sides complete and cordial. Let both nations see to it that they be indissolubly united. Let them hope and pray that increasing communications will in the course of a few years introduce the great body of the two peoples to each other, and that such relationships will be established as will secure peace against the accidents and asperities of fortune, ambition, or caprice.

The newspapers and periodicals of Great Britain have been in the habit of treating the Americans, their customs, habits, laws, and proceedings generally, with discourtesy; and that more so than the peculiarities that may with more reason be judged censurable in other nations. The American public complain of this treatment, and denounce the attacks made on them as ill-natured, unfair, and prejudiced, and at the same time as ill-advised, impolitic, and dangerous in their practical results.

It may be that the feeling of the majority of the population in the United States is unfavourable to England; but abuse and satire are not the means to secure their friendship and attachment. While it is admitted that some of them are unfriendly, they are not all averse. There is a large and respectable minority always existing, though not always composed of the same elements, or acting in concert, which is decidedly friendly, viz., the commercial and the religious portions of the population. It is evidently the proper policy of the English press, assumed as the representatives of the English people, to support and strengthen this minority;—not as hitherto, with only a few exceptions, to confound the friendly and the unfriendly in the same censures, and assail them with the same ridicule; not to confound all American men and things without distinction in an indiscriminate condemnation. It has been too much the practice to regard all measures of questionable propriety, when emanating from the Government, as done by the whole of the American people, although such measures may probably have been opposed and condemned in the most resolute way by nearly one half of the representatives of the nation, and by a very considerable number of the nation itself.

At the present time a society of native Americans has started into full vitality under the title of "Know Nothings," or, as they call themselves, the Order of the United Americans. Whatever may be its real objects, however impolitic or contrary to the professed principles of complete religious liberty, there is every reason to believe it originated in motives of the purest patriotism, and that many of its developments are decidedly favourable to England, yet it has been derided by almost the entire English press,—a course of conduct which, to say the least, is decidedly unwise and reprehensible.

Whatever we may deny the Americans, there is one thing we cannot but appreciate, viz., their growing importance in the material and political world; while they themselves know, individually and collectively, that Europeans can no longer afford to regard them with indifference or contempt.*

* The Celts, who crossed the Atlantic because they could not get Ireland for the Irish, find their ears deafened by the cry of "America for the Americans." The vaunts of the Catholics of their progress in the exercise of priestly power, so repugnant to republican usages, such, for instance, as Cardinal Bellini forcing school children to kneel before him,—the demand for a portion of the public funds for the support of schools to be under their own direction and control,—and the excep-

It is high time that all party feeling and petty prejudice and jealousies be done away, and that men of intelligence in all nations set an example of striving for the things that make for peace and things whereby they may improve and edify each other. And may God graciously vouchsafe to the nations of the earth such wisdom that they may see it to be their own best interest to prefer the solid advantages of peaceful enterprise to the ambitious projects of territorial dominion!

> "Hush down the sound of quarrel, let party names alone,
> Let brother join with brother, and duty claim his own;
> In battle with the mammon host, join peasant, clerk, and lord,
> Sweet Charity your banner-flag, and 'God for All' your word."

"The time is not come for me yet," says the Earl of Carlisle, "if ever it should come, to make me feel myself warranted in forming speculations upon far results, upon guarantees for future endurance and stability. All that I can now do is to look and to marvel at what is before my eyes. I do not think I am deficient in relish for antiquity and association. I know that I am English, not in a pig-headed adhesion to everything there, but in heart to its last throb. Yet I cannot be unmoved or callous to the soarings of young America—in such legitimate and laudable directions too; and I feel that it is already not the least bright, and may be the most enduring title of my country to the homage of mankind, that she has produced such a people. May God employ both for his own high glory!"

To conclude: while men of commerce look at the mercantile worth of the spices of the United States,—its jewels, grain, sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, woods, drugs, and perfumes; while the naturalist pores enamoured over its Fauna, its Flora, and its mineralogy, the philosophic christian traces with delight

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tional glut of the labour market this year in the sea-board cities, consequent on commercial depression, have all given food for this new agitation. The principle asserted in this society is that of nationality. The manifesto after—1st., disavowing all religious intolerance, is as follows:—2nd. Each member must be a Protestant, born of Protestant parents, reared under Protestant influence; and if he is united to a Roman Catholic wife he is not eligible to any office. The 3rd Article defines the objects of the Church of Rome and other foreign influence, and protects the institutions of the country by placing all offices in the gift of the people, or by their appointment, none but native-born Protestant citizens. The oaths are most solemn; every "know-nothing" thereby binds himself to exclude a large number of his fellow-citizens from all share in the administration,—exclusion from all share in the Government, &c.,—and the deprivation of the franchise will be a natural consequence.—*Westminster Review, July*, 1855, *pp.* 196, *&c.*

the power it has benignly swayed over the social state of a great portion of mankind; the ways innumerable in which that power is now pervading all civilised life; and the certainty every day growing clearer that hence will spring changes, social and religious, which, for the magnitude of the spheres affected, the value of the benefits conferred, and the splendour of the subsequent career ensured, will cause the United States to shine without a parallel in the galaxy of nations.

CUBA AND THE CUBANS.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Geographical position.—Extent. History. Description of Havanna. Religion. Morals. General character of inhabitants. Origin. Slavery. Piracy. Government. Present equivocal destiny of the island. Army and navy. Revenue.

"How enchanting to the senses, at least," says the Earl of Carlisle, "were the three weeks I spent in Cuba! How my memory turns to its picturesque forms and balmy skies!" and he thus poetically apostrophises the beautiful scenery of the island:—

"Ye tropic forests of unfading green,
  Where the palm tapers and the orange glows,
Where the light bamboo weaves her feathery screen,
  And her tall shade the matchless ceyba throws:

"Ye cloudless ethers of unchanging blue,
  Save, as its rich varieties give way,
To the clear sapphire of your midnight hue,
  The burnished azure of your perfect day.

"Yet tell me not my native skies are bleak,
  That, flushed with liquid wealth, no cane fields wave;
For virtue pines, and manhood dares not speak,
  And nature's glories brighten round the slave."

Cuba, styled the "Queen of the Antilles," and the "Gem of the American Seas," or "La Siempre Fiel Isla de Cuba," as it is grandiloquently styled in all Spanish documents, was discovered by Columbus, October 28th, 1492, in his first voyage to the west after discovering St. Salvador, one of the Lucayos or Bahama Isles. Its figure is long and narrow, approaching that of a crescent, with its convex side looking towards the Arctic Pole; its west portion lying between Florida and the peninsula of Yucatan—the north-east promontory of South

America. It is supposed to have been united to this part of the continent of South America by an isthmus, but now two entrances into the Gulf of Mexico are presented, formed by the action of the waters of the Caribbean Sea;—the one to the south between Cape Catoche and Cape St. Antonio; and the other to the north, between Bahia Honda and Florida.

Cuba is about ninety-five miles from the nearest point of Jamaica; from Haiti fifty miles; about one hundred and twenty miles from the coast of Tobasco and Yucatan in Mexico; and one hundred and fifty miles from Florida. Like Jamaica, and most of the other islands of the Archipelago generally, it is intersected by a chain of mountains passing east and west; which chain (called Montanus del Cobre, or Snake Mountains), partaking of the curvature of the island, and sloping on each side towards the coast, raises itself up in its highest elevation about seven thousand two hundred feet above the level of the sea.

It is situated in 23.9 north latitude, and 82.2 west longitude; and is seven hundred and eighty miles in length, by about fifty-two miles in medial breadth; containing a superficial area of forty-three thousand five hundred square miles, being nearly equal in extent to all the other islands united. The largest and most important island attached to Cuba is the Isle of Pines, called by Columbus, who discovered it in 1494, Evangelista, situated on the south side of the island, about half the size of Long Island in the United States. Cuba was originally, and is at the present time, though now almost the only one, the most flourishing of the Spanish settlements in the New World, and is the largest of those that constitute the Columbian Archipelago.

The earliest period at which anything was heard respecting this island that particularly attracted the attention of Europe was in 1518, when Cortez sailed from it with six hundred and twenty men for his expedition to Mexico, under the direction of Velasquez. The latter was one of the companions of Columbus, and the first Deputy-Governor of Cuba, under Don Diego Columbus; and it was by the authority of the latter that Velasquez effected its conquest from the natives, who for a time bravely defended their lovely isle under their celebrated cazique or chief, Hatuay. The circumstances attending this invasion were of great atrocity, especially in relation to this celebrated Indian. Being taken prisoner, he was ordered by Velasquez to

be burnt alive. When tied to the stake, and before the fatal brand was thrown upon the pile that was to consume his body to ashes, Hatuey listened to the exhortations of a priest, who besought him to embrace Christianity.

"Are there any Spaniards in paradise?" enquired the doomed chief.

"Without doubt there are some," replied the priest.

"Ah, then, Hatuey has no wish to go there. Fire the stake and let me burn, for I have no desire to be seen where there are Spaniards."*

The subjugation of the island was effected by a force of about three hundred men, sent for this object from Hispaniola, now Haiti, in or about the year 1511. It had been, however, circumnavigated by Ocampo in 1508, three years previously, till which time it was supposed by Columbus to have been a continent.

The population of Cuba is estimated at the present time at nearly 1,000,000 of all classes and colours, of whom upwards of one-third are whites. According to statistics given by M. Bellou, the number of the population of the whole island is as follows:—Of whites, 603,000; of free coloured people, about 205,000; and of slaves, 442,000. But the number of slaves here given is probably underrated, as Lord Aberdeen, writing to Mr. Bulwer in December 1843, estimated them at that time, on the authority of the most intelligent inhabitants of the island, as between 800,000 and 900,000.†

According to Senor Torre the population is 1,500,000. Of this, about 1,009,060 are comprised in the settled population of the island. The proportions in 1853, which are derived from the latest official census that has been published, is as follows: —Whites, 501,988; free coloured, 176,647; slaves, 330,425: total, 1,009,060. This is the fixed population; add to this the transient, and the aggregate would be increased to 1,500,000.

Divided according to nationalities the whole population is thus enumerated:—Natives of Spain, 90,620; of the Canary Islands, 25,000; of France, 3,000; of England, 1,000; and of America and other countries, 3,000; leaving more than

* A similar tragedy to the above was acted by Pizarro, in his conquest of Mexico, towards the celebrated Inca Atabalipa.

† History of Cuba; or, Notes by a Traveller in the Tropics. By M. Bellou, Boston, 1854, p. 202.

400,000 natives of the island. Among the latter are the copper-coloured American race of Cuba still existing in very small numbers, who are considered the true descendants of the aborigines found on the island when first visited by Columbus.

The total number thus given, estimating the area of the island in square leagues at 3,075, gives 254 to the square league, or 20 to the square mile, and shows that the population is more dense than that of the southern portion of the United States, or of any one of the Spanish-American States, including the whole of Brazil.*

On the authority of Mr. Pliny Miles, of Boston, in his pamphlet on Ocean Steam Navigation, I quote additional statistics. They are as late as 1857:—

"The total number of estates on the island is not far from 14,000; which may be divided as follows:—coffee plantations, 1,862; sugar plantations, 1,442; tobacco plantations, 912; grazing and fruits, 9,930. The annual products are valued at 600,000,000 dollars. Some of the principal are estimated as follows:—sugar, 18,669,942 dollars; fruits, 14,839,050 dollars; coffee, 6,000,000 dollars; molasses, 1,402,728 dollars; cigars, 4,267,496 dollars; leaf tobacco, 500,000 dollars. The annual imports of the island amount to 30,000,000 dollars; the exports about 28,000,000 dollars. Cuba sends exports to England annually to the amount of about 1,500,000 dollars; and to the United States, about 7,000,000 dollars. There are also already constructed railroads measuring 397 miles."

Ethnologically considered, the races of inhabitants found at present on the island, are the Caucasian, African, American, and Mongolian. The latter are chiefly Chinese, introduced into the island since 1847, amounting to about 6,000, and included in the "transient" returns. Africans were introduced into Cuba in 1524, but from causes that will hereafter appear, rather than from climate, the multiplication of the race has never corresponded with what might have been reasonably expected. According to the clearest and most incontrovertible evidence their numbers have been greatly diminished by merciless oppression. It is well known that many thousands of Africans have been brought into Cuba since 1850, and that now its slave population is only little more than half a million.

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* Compendi Geographia fisica, politica, estadistica y companda de la Isla de Cuba. Don Jose Maria de la Torre Real of the Economics of Havanna.

Havanna is now the capital city of Cuba. Formerly Baracoa and St. Jago de Cuba, situated on the south side of the island, claimed that distinction. Havanna is built on the north-western coast, that situation being chosen because the channel between Cuba and the main land of North America was found the most convenient passage for merchant vessels bound to Europe from Mexico. The last named cities are the more ancient, for they were founded by the first Deputy-Governor. Havanna, however, is not only the principal city, but has long been the greatest commercial emporium of the western islands. It stands, as already said, on the north-west side of the island, distant from Kingston 740 miles, the course being south of Jamaica and of Cuba, round Capes Antonio and Corientes.

The shape of the town, like the harbour, is semicircular, the diameter being formed by the shore. Like many other towns within the tropics, it appears at a distance as if embosomed in a wood of palm and other trees of great novelty and beauty of form, to the European eye towering with proud pre-eminence over all the other visible objects the city contains. Its population is estimated at one hundred and twenty thousand.

It has been truly said that both the Old and the New World meet in Cuba. Havanna seems like a piece of Spain that has drifted into the Atlantic. Approaching this city from Europe or America, the eye is rivetted by the variety and brilliancy of the panorama. On one side are fortifications, resembling those of Malta, hewn out of the dark grey rock, and along their parapets may be seen lines of soldiers in white uniforms, with the ancient Spanish banner, red and gold, waving in the passing currents of the air. Below these, along the shore to the right of the entrance to the harbour, towards the ramparts, spreads the town; not sombre, like London, nor white, like Paris, but party-coloured, like Damascus. The houses are blue, pink, scarlet, yellow, with masses of green palms gleaming above them, and shading the streets and squares with their broad feathery fronds; the whole city basking in the sun and resembling an immense number of showy articles of porcelain and glass on a stall of fancy wares. In the harbour float old-fashioned gondolas, not black, like those of Venice, but brilliant and beautiful. Altogether Havanna has a peculiar character, and a romantic life, unlike that of any other city either in Europe or America.

The riches and magnificence of Havanna have frequently

excited the cupidity of invaders, and it has been, therefore, repeatedly subject to attacks by hostile armaments. It was taken by a French pirate in 1568; afterwards by English and French buccaneers, and subsequently by the British, under the Duke of Albemarle and Admiral Pococke, in the reign of George III., after a siege of twenty-nine days; its capture involving a great sacrifice of lives, as well as producing a vast amount of treasure to the captors. It was, however, restored to Spain by England in the peace of 1763.

But the value and importance of the city, as also of the whole island, was rated so high, as already hinted, not only on account of the treasures it was found to contain, but still more from great political and commercial considerations; as it was the key of the Spanish possessions in South America, and the harbour in which all the galleons and merchant vessels were accustomed to assemble before they departed on their voyage to Europe.

Since the loss to Spain of her South American colonies, this island has become of especial importance to England and America, whose mutual interest it is to secure its permanent possession to Spain; or, on any disruption of the tie which binds it to Europe, to recognize it as an independent state, as it commands the Gulf of Mexico by the Straits of Yucatan and Florida; the navigation of the windward passage and channel of Bahamas; with all the maritime frontier south of Georgia, in the north of the new hemisphere; and, therefore, by whichsoever of these two great maritime powers it were possessed, the balance of power would be destroyed, viz.:—that equilibrium of political influence which the civilised world instinctively feels to be essential to the maintenance of order and the due development of all resources, mental, moral, and physical, that are within its reach; and the loss of which equilibrium, it may be feared, would involve the sacrifice of the peace and amity which have so long subsisted between these nations. No one, especially who is an inhabitant of the colonies of Great Britain in this hemisphere, but must deprecate the attempts that are obviously made by our neighbours of the United States to annex this valuable and important island to their Republic, as the evils of such an accession, by perpetuating the slavery of its vassals, and by other important results, would be deeply felt throughout this whole archipelago, entailing mischiefs that can scarcely be conceived. It has been too justly observed,—The Russians call the Crimea

their Italy. America sees an Italy in Cuba. She has an old quarrel with the Government of Spain, and many of her people desire to satisfy their wrongs by the annexation of this "isle of beauty."

That this is the wish of many Americans is evident from their published sentiments. "The masses among us," says a late American author, "may not busy themselves with acquiring Cuba; but the States where slavery exists, aware of the political importance it has for them, do not slumber; and their prudence, and their wise measures, and their enthusiasm in the cause, are sure guarantees that the annexation will take place at an early date."

The desire for the possession of Cuba has existed ever since the days of Jefferson, who, in his letters to President Munro, in 1823, says:—"I candidly confess that I have ever looked on Cuba as the most interesting addition which could ever be made to our system of States. The control which, with Florida Point, this island would give us over the Gulf of Mexico and the countries and isthmus bordering it, would fill up the measure of our political well-being." At the same time, as it is natural to suppose, there is a desire on the part of Cubans themselves for annexation. This is easily understood when the immense value it would impart at once to estates and landed property in general is considered. Thus, if there are 800,000 slaves in Cuba, worth 50,000,000 dollars, and their value should equalise with those of the United States, the result would be 150,000,000 dollars in favour of the owners for that item. It is also well known that most of the influential men around the Spanish Government are interested in this property, and that they have a secret desire for its improvement in value.*

It is but justice, however, to say that there is a powerful party in the United States opposed to annexing it, even by purchase. A very popular writer in Massachusetts has lately published a work, in which he argues that to conquer the island would be a great crime, and to buy it an absurdity. He quotes in his favour a noble maxim of Roman law,—"That a patriot will value the good name of his country far more than the treasures of the world."

Is it not time, it may be asked, that philanthropists everywhere should awake to the fearful condition of Cuba, and use

* 1,000 negroes, in Cuba, are estimated by some authorities at £100,000.

every means to free her from her present state and impending destiny? And is it not the duty of Jamaica, and the other West India islands generally, to interest themselves in this momentous question?

If Cuba became independent, a prosperous commerce might be maintained between her and the mother country, resulting from ancient associations, common language, and tastes, which would be far more productive than the best contrived system of colonial taxation.

Such, notoriously, has been the result to Great Britain of the establishment of the independence of the United States.

The established religion of Havanna, and of the whole country, is the Roman Catholic. Popery exists, it may be said, in all its various and most intolerant forms. Here, as in most other Spanish settlements, it admits of no compromise with other forms and denominations of religion. Indeed, the toleration of other religious opinions and practices is said to be contrary to the Spanish constitution, and thus every resident foreigner is compelled to yield allegiance to the Papal See. Protestant worship, it would appear, is not even tolerated in the house of the British Consul. And it is stated, that although the port of Havanna is visited by from twelve to fifteen thousand American seamen annually, it is unsupplied with a chaplain, because the bigotted Popish Government of the island will not permit the residence of a minister of the Gospel who will not swear himself a good Catholic.

The state of morals among the inhabitants of Cuba generally, may be inferred both from its political and its religious condition. Havanna has been described as a city of crime and sorrow, of despair and gold,—a concentration of whatever can impair the intellect, corrupt the imagination, and deprave the heart. With many honourable exceptions doubtless, vice and wickedness pervade the whole mass of the population. Sabbath breaking, profane swearing, uncleanness, irreligion, and infidelity, are awfully prevalent. Says a late writer:—"The people who compose the lower orders are free blacks, slaves, and Spaniards; all of them are very dissolute and unprincipled; and I believe the city is the scene of more outrages and daring crimes than any other of its size in the civilised world."

As some evidence of the licentiousness that prevails, illegitimacy is so prevalent that the proportion of illegitimate births among the coloured people is more than sixty-six per cent.

The unchecked influence of Popery upon society is fearful. There is nothing in it that purifies and elevates our nature. It leaves the heart without life and the mind without light. It is nearly all external. In the church there is no devotion,—nothing to kindle up the soul. The cathedrals are great public shows, to which the people go to be amused, not to be edified. There is worship, but no religion,—rather there is hypocrisy, but no religion; no religion in the hearts of the people; no correct and holy example in the life. They are practical atheists,—some professing the outward form for the sake of decorum, some from fashion, some from fear, some from caprice. They observe days and months, and times, and years, and groan under the irksome pressure of degrading rites and costly ceremonials. Their devotion is not the work of the heart, the rising of the soul to God; the worship which only can be acceptable to Him, because it is the simple and fervent expression of true feelings and wants.

There is no Sabbath. The hallowed morn brings no relief from toil or care. Business is as urgent, the shops more attractive, and the theatres more thronged on that sacred day than on others. In certain places markets are held, attended by thousands of all classes. For the evening of this day the most attractive pieces for theatrical representation are reserved; the character and tendency of many of these are fearful,—enough to weaken and destroy all the ties of virtue and morality in any people. All the claims of religion cease at an early hour. Everywhere the Sabbath is marked by worldliness. It is either spent in business or pleasure; and drunkenness and festivity everywhere abound.

No one can doubt that the influence of the priest is very great over the minds of the female population. Females compose by far the greater part of his congregation; they attend the numerous feasts in considerable numbers, and are nearly the only visitors at the confessional. Infidelity is said to be very rife among the other sex, especially in the higher circles. Of true religion the Cubans have no conception, and Romanism is only a deception—a fraud.

It answers the ends of the priesthood. As an engine of power it serves their purposes with the people. Beyond this, numbers of the intelligent do not go; and should Romanism interfere with their liberty they would annihilate the one to preserve the other. Many of the most respectable

inhabitants do not scruple to manifest their predilection for liberty of conscience. Free, however, to gratify themselves, and unchecked by its influence, they tolerate a system which in heart they believe to be a great and grievous imposture. In their hearts Popery and its mummeries are thoroughly hated. Still there lingers some superstitious fear before which many quail in moments of sickness or in the hour of death. They are then frightened into prayer, but not melted into contrition; they seek those consolations from external forms and superstitious ceremonies which genuine religion alone can impart.

Like the parent state, Cuba has been vanquished and enslaved, oppressed and almost lost through ecclesiastical intolerance. Literature has been discouraged, and but for the vestiges that remain among some of the older families, and the infusion of liberal principles among her youth by England and America, she would have sunk ere this into utter barbarism. Infidelity has been imported principally from France, and the people, submerged in ignorance, are carried away by a torrent of licentiousness and unbelief.

Nor does acquaintance with the community in general tend to elevate the notions of a reputable stranger as to their social state. Not to notice the unbounded and unblushing licentiousness that prevails, there appears but little social intercourse between the males and females of the same family. Their habits at meals partake little of social elegance, and indicate, even among the higher classes, an inferior state of civilisation. Their domestic comforts are evidently few. That state of domestic union towards which nature leads the human species by softening the heart to gentleness and humanity, is, in a great degree unknown, and the married state is so unequal as to establish a cruel distinction between the sexes; stimulating the one to be harsh and unfeeling, and humbling the other to servility and uncomplaining submission.

Upon the surface lie many things unfavourable in their influence to domestic peace and social purity. Married women appear degraded. They are not here presiding spirits in the sanctuary of domestic life. The early instruction of their children,- -the regulation of the domestics,—the entire policy of the household, are not committed to them. While they are by no means exempt from domestic cares, oftentimes those of business are superadded. The sweet lovely bloom of matronly modesty is wanting also in Cuba; the grace and affectionate

influence of matronly character is not seen. The social ties are weakened, and domestic influence of the pure elevating kind is not felt.

The men luxuriate in the café, or spend their evenings in worse places of resort. It may be generally said that they pass their mornings in business, their afternoons in melting lassitude at some creole coffee-house, and their evenings in lounging on the promenade, at the opera, or in the delicious suburbs; for Cuba is a festal island, and its inhabitants are as much addicted to gaiety as to repose. Home is only a place of rest, not of enjoyment; a place of retirement, not of loving and softening influence. The marriage bond is loosely held. Not only is domestic infidelity fearfully prevalent—even female virtue is but little esteemed. In the highest circles vice of this character reigns almost unchecked, and its influence extends itself down to the lowest ranks of society. Every class is more or less tainted with the evil; both priests and people are alike. "The whole head is sick." Popery does not meet this monstrous evil. It cannot. It rather soothes and cherishes it,—weakening the motives to purity,—annihilating all the safeguards to virtue; by its ruthless invasion and scrutiny of the female heart it leaves it a prey to every passion, and fearful is the harvest of immorality that results from it. Thus the moral condition of the masses is deplorable, and their bigotry, superstition, and vice are of no common kind.

No wonder that among the female portion of the community, even among the best of them, there should be seen an inefficient discharge of household duties.

Although, however, Spanish matrons are not generally remarkable for the social affections, nor celebrated for their domestic economy and industry, yet these virtues and qualities are not wholly unappreciated by the other sex. Hence the familiar Spanish proverb:—

> "The wife that expects to have a good name,
> Is always at home as if she were lame;
> And the maid that is honest—her cheerful delight
> Is still to be doing from morning till night."

The state of things thus detailed, it is scarcely necessary to observe, is, to a considerable degree, the effect of slavery, the greatest moral pestilence that ever withered the happiness of mankind. Like the poisonous upas, its dark shadows wither everything within its baleful influence. It is as great a curse

to the enslaver as to the enslaved; it renders the one as cruel and licentious as the other is degraded and miserable; it is a crime which, if not annihilated by other means, will one day find its destruction in its excesses. Anywhere and everywhere slave-masters contract bad habits of almost every kind; they become haughty, passionate, obdurate, vindictive, voluptuous, cruel, and in general neglect all the moral virtues.* Providence never permits the laws of nature to be outraged with impunity. That violence should be done to the affections of the heart, or that man should be made to serve as the instrument of vile ambition and avarice to his brother, without a just retribution, is contrary to reason, and against the principles of God's moral government of the world. This slavery—the foulest blot on the escutcheon of Spain, and which has long given her such unenviable notoriety among the nations—exists here in all its horrors.

The annals of the colony are written in blood. Law in this country is but a fiction, justice only a name. Nothing could have been more erroneous than the impression once prevalent that the consequences of slavery to its unhappy victims were more mild and in all respects less revolting in Cuba than elsewhere. It exists here to the present day with every circumstance of cruelty and horror incident to that accursed system. The cruelties practised towards the slaves by their relentless oppressors, like those inflicted by the ancestors of these men on the amiable and unoffending Indians, and which resulted in almost the complete annihilation of the latter, have never perhaps been exceeded by civilised man.

The wretched vassals know of no respite from labour or from suffering. They are made to work on an average thirteen hours a day, and during the crop season for sixteen hours a day. Little relaxation or repose is given them. Sunday is not even excepted, it is no day of recreation or rest to them. Their sufferings and toils are thus brought to an early close; they are soon literally worn to death; a very few years is the utmost extent during which human endurance can sustain life under such circumstances.

It is a well authenticated fact that the average life of a Cuban slave is at the most of eight years' duration. A predial slave is worked to death within this period, and is replaced by

* See Letters of Thomas Jefferson.

continual importations of Africans, as also of Indians from Yucatan in the southern continent, a fact which has been recently ascertained. The slaves of Cuba are among the most wretched beings that were ever beheld—the "iron has entered into their souls." Nothing but despotism keeps the mass together.

The Slave Trade is also carried on under the most atrocious circumstances. During a visit of the author to Havanna some years since, perceiving considerable excitement in the city, he enquired the cause, and found it was owing to a recent contest between a British vessel and a slaver at no great distance from the harbour. The crew of the slaver, it seems, had been dreadfully mangled by the man of war, but had arrived, notwithstanding, at Regla, a suburb of Havanna; to which medical men had been sent from the city with the utmost dispatch, in order to afford the necessary surgical assistance. And this was proclaimed in the public streets, and formed the common topic of conversation at noonday, without any attempt at secrecy or any indication of disapproval.

The slave trade is manifestly connived at by officers of the Government, both high and low, in the most unblushing manner, and in spite of laws and treaties.

The Captain-General is said not only to patronise and concur in the continuance of this abominable traffic, but to be deeply interested in it. More than this, it is affirmed that it is actually encouraged by the Queen of Spain,—the modern Catherine de Medicis,—Queen Maria Isabella II.; and that an ounce of gold is received by the Governor for every slave that is brought into the island; this, too, in defiance of the treaty between Great Britain and Spain for its abolition,—in defiance of the law making this traffic piracy.*

In May, 1820, the British Government paid to Spain £400,000 as a compensation for the losses sustained by the captains of their slave ships, and the loss which Spanish subjects would thereafter sustain by the abolition of the trade."

The number of slaves annually imported into Cuba and its neighbourhood, is said by some authorities to be twenty-five thousand, but by others to be nearly double that number. They consist also, almost entirely of *men*, and on some estates, not a *single woman* is to be found. Natural increase is dis-

* For the Treaty, vide Appendix.

regarded. As with oxen, the strongest animals are imported, are worked up, and then succeeded by a fresh supply. And, to the disgrace of America, nine-tenths of the vessels employed in this trade are said to be built at Baltimore and New York, and furnished both with American registers and American colours. It is an astounding fact that two-thirds of the slaves introduced into this island, having been imported since 1820, together with their issue, amounting in all to upwards of five hundred thousand souls, are, both by the treaty above-named, and by the laws of Spain, entitled to their liberty!

At the same time, there are slaves in this island who have been captured on the middle passage by our cruisers; these have been brought of late before the mixed commission court, at Havanna, and have been by that court legally freed and ordered to be apprenticed to Cubans, who have in reality enslaved them; so that there are many thousands *emancipados*, as they are termed, wearing out their lives in slavery, for whose liberty the honour, not only of Spain, but of England is pledged.

After years of fruitless representations, our Government have at length succeeded in obtaining decrees for the registration of these people and for their ultimate freedom.

M. Ballou attributes the connivance of the Spanish government in the slave trade not merely to individual selfishness, but also to an idea on the part of the home government that it is not advisable to stop the import of the raw material, out of which might be manufactured on occasion "black recruits." It is this intimation amongst other things, that has so greatly excited the rage of the creole owners and of their American sympathizers against the parent country.

The Captain-Generalship of Cuba has been notoriously sought and bestowed as the means of acquiring a fortune; and in so short a space of time is this result secured, that four years of office is reputed to be a tenure which no Governor, however poverty-stricken or covetous, need desire to exceed. It is currently alleged that the annual perquisites of the office fall little short of £100,000, and that a Captain-General of Cuba, after five years' absence, may reasonably expect to return to Spain with his half million of realised gains.

It is asserted by a very recent writer, that the "gratification," so called, of half an ounce of gold, which was formerly received by the Captains-General for every "sack of charcoal" (the nick-

name given by those who engage in this infamous traffic to the African slaves brought over), has risen to the large sum of three doubloons in gold. And this odious traffic, it is deeply to be deplored, is greatly on the increase. A short time since, when the band of Narcisco Lopez was attacked and defeated in the streets of Cardenas by the Spanish troops, one thousand slaves were landed in the island, which produced the Captain-General three thousand ounces of gold, being three ounces for each slave. It is asserted that upwards of ten thousand have been landed during the last few months.

The attention of the British Government and people is now being especially drawn to the shameful violation of the treaties both by the Government of Spain and by that of Brazil. England will surely demand their fulfilment without any further delay, in justice to her own colonies, as well as for her own honour and the sake of humanity. At present, England is in the anomalous position of a man with one hand extended to annihilate the slave trade, and with the other grasping a bonus from the produce of slavery. In other words, while the British Government placed a preventive squadron on the slave-coast, simultaneously it abolished the differential and protective duties, and thereby put a premium on slave-labour, or on the contraband traffic in slaves.

The abolition or suppression of the slave-trade is stated by a manifesto of the Cubans themselves, as necessary to the political existence of the country. They protest against the contraband trade as compromising day by day the political existence of the island, by swelling the numbers and strengthening the power of the servile and alien race. This traffic is regarded as a stigma on their civilisation,—a horrid abyss in which they bury their security for future welfare,—the hydra which frightens capitalists from the island.

Piracy is almost as openly recognised as the slave-trade. Regla, a short time since, if not at the present time, might be called the pandemonium of pirates—an organised society of these desperadoes existing there under the cognomen of "Musselmen." They were so numerous and desperate that it was supposed the public authorities either connived at their atrocities or were afraid to interfere with them; while the trade of plunder was so openly practised, that a woman apologised for the absence of her husband by saying that he was "gone on a cruise with the Musselmen." The atrocities of these men were designated

by the name of "irregular sea practice;" and with a still further view to deceive, they designated themselves "Spanish fishermen."

The government in Cuba is engrafted on that of old Spain. Being thus an integral part of the monarchy, it is governed like the provinces of the parent state, and divided into three *intendencias*—Western, Central, and Eastern; or, as more commonly designated, the Oriental, the Central, and the Occidental, under one Governor.

These grand divisions are subdivided into several governments, sub-governments, and colonies. The Central and Occidental departments form the civil province of Havanna; and the Oriental, the civil province of Cuba. For ecclesiastical purposes the island is divided into two dioceses: that of Havanna, which includes all the Occidental department, and the Central, with the exception of the sub-governments of Puerto Principe and Nuevitas; and that of Cuba, which includes the Oriental department, and that portion of the Central not in union with the diocese of Havanna.

For judicial purposes, the Occidental department forms the *Audiencia Real* of Havanna; and the two other departments, that of Puerto Principe.

The "Occidental Department" contains the governments of Havanna and Matanzas, the sub-government of Alacranes, Bahia Honda, Bejucal, Cardenas, Guanhacoa, San Julien de Guines, Jaraco, Mariel, Nueva Felipina, Santa Maria del Rosaria, San Antonio, San Christobal, and Santiago, and the colony of La Raina Amalia, or Isla de Pinos.

The "Central Department" contains the governments of Trinadad and Fernandina de Jagua, the sub-governments of Cienfuegos, Puerto Principe, Nuevitas, San Juan de los Remedios, Sagua la Grande, Santa Clara, Espurito Santo, and the colony of San Domingo.

The "Oriental Department" contains the government of Santiago de Cuba, and the sub-governments of Baracoa, Bayamo, Holguin, Jiguani las Tunas, Manzanillo, and Saltadero.

The island is presided over usually by one of the nobility of old Spain, in whom are associated the double offices of Cure-Governor and Captain-General. This officer resides in Havanna.

There is, however, in Puerto Principe, an Audiencia or Supreme Court, having jurisdiction over the Island of Puerto

Rico, as well as that of Cuba, and which is said to be in some respects independent of the local government.

The Government of Cuba, though, as already said, similar to that of the parent state, is much more oppressive. It is a kind of military despotism, or rather an oligarchy, in which the love of dominion is carried to a species of fanaticism, and degraded into meanness. As nothing is too large for its ambition, so nothing is too small for its cupidity. Its appetite is insatiable, and its digestion omnivorous. There are no limits to its rapacity. Both the legislative, judicial, and executive power is almost entirely in the hands of the Governor. Indeed, the power with which he is invested is almost equal in extent to that granted to governors of besieged towns. Even the higher classes may be said to have no civil rights,—neither those of personal liberty, personal security, nor personal property,—immunities declared by Blackstone as the inalienable birthright of every man.

The *taxation* is said to exceed in variety and extent that of any taxation imposed by any Government in any country of its size upon earth: viz., upwards of *twenty millions* of dollars collected by the order and for the uses of the Spanish Government alone, independently of those appropriated to the wants of the country itself or for social purposes.

The revenue of the island in 1851 was reported to be 13,821,456 dollars, which is thought to be below the real aggregate. Other estimates affirm that the taxation for that year amounted to both the revenue and the expenses, viz., 25,291,206 dollars. The 13,821,456 dollars went to Spain, and the 11,969,150 was appropriated to the Governor and the army of officials.*

The creole population are excluded from almost all influential and lucrative offices and positions. The judges and most of the officials are from Spain, and being without salaries, like so many vultures they prey upon the unprotected within their jurisdiction. There are no means dishonest, tyrannical, or cruel which the Spanish authorities have left untried in their apparent endeavours to ruin the colony. Bribery and corruption seem to be recognised as necessary methods of their government. Some of the officials plead the excuse of necessity, and that insufficient remuneration for their services obliges them to have

* Compendi, &c. Don Jose Maria de la Torre, &c.

recourse to every possible means of adding to their incomes. Others whose position, and the amount of whose salaries ought to place them far above such dishonest practices, satisfy their consciences by alleging the custom of the island. Every man has his price, from the Captain-General downwards to the lowest grade of officials. The Governor even is handsomely paid for breaking his country's plighted faith in permitting the landing of Africans,—as are also all his accomplices, down to the lowest unpaid official. The Government is composed of dealers in ambition. The advocates of moderation to-day may become, from interested motives, the advocates of tyranny to-morrow; while, to culminate misfortune, or rather misrule, the public necessities are increasing, their impoverished treasury rapidly presents greater needs, and disregarding the best known and most appropriate financial measures, the rulers of the colony have resorted to plans for annihilating the little commerce that remains, and to oppress the inhabitants with most grievous and ill-calculated taxes. The whole colonial policy of Spain is nothing better than injustice, and all injustice will sooner or later end in revolution. Sad, indeed, that this fair isle should be at one and the same time the richest gem in the crown of Spain and the foulest blot on her escutcheon!

Cuba thus without toleration, without civil liberty, without liberty of conscience, how degraded! What wonder at the decay of its Government, or at the depravation of the national character?

As in all the former colonies of old Spain, the laws are not so objectionable as the manner in which they are executed or evaded. The *press* of the country is under such servile censorship, that the very incidents of everyday life are often excluded at the will and caprice of one individual, who is appointed to scrutinise the most trifling article before it can be presented to the public. Hence the conventional, emphatic, hyperbolic style of words found in the Cuban journals, and which none but Cubans can understand. There are published in Havanna four daily newspapers and one monthly periodical. The latter is entitled the "Anales." There are also two semi-monthlies: "La Revista de la Havanna," and "El Almandares." At Matanzas there is issued daily the "Aurora." At St. Jago de Cuba there are three publications; and one or more in each of the principal towns: while there are also printed and circulated in the island some literary and scientific publications, edited

principally by young men of the country who have voluntarily devoted themselves to the cultivation of letters.

"The despotism and exclusiveness of the mother country," says the Earl of Carlisle,—alluding to the time of his personal visit,—"were complete; everyone gave the same picture of the corruption and demoralisation which pervaded every department of the administration of justice," &c.

"The politics of the country," he continues, "are rather delicate ground to tread on just now, and are likely to be continually shifting. It appeared to me that all the component parts held each other in check, like the people who were all prevented from killing each other in the farce of 'The Critic.'"*

Thus Cuba, after all, is neither prosperous nor happy. Heavy interest on mortgage debts is breaking down the proprietary. Her internal condition is anything but what it ought to be. The despotism of the Government,—the prevailing venality and thirst of gain,—the bitter dissatisfaction of the creoles,—the state of the slaves,—the continuance of the slave-trade, which annually peoples the island with thousands of wild Africans,—the longing glances which the American Paris casts upon his Atlantic Helen,—all forebode a stormy future, and, it may be, a terrible and bloody crisis.

No wonder the Cuban proprietor is not happy,—no wonder should the black be even more happy than the white,—the crushed slave more happy than the master. For the latter no palm trees wave their massy fronts with music in the bland air; the delicious winds do not caress him; the mild blue heavens shine not upon him. Between him and all the glory of nature stands the bohea and the sugar mill, with the negro slaves who dread him, and of whom he equally stands in dread. The mild heavens of Cuba give the slave-owner no peace. He sees the sword of Damocles hanging over his head, and the future is all dark and portentous before him. His end, therefore, and his only aim, is more than ever to augment his revenues with as little delay as possible, and, by whatever means, that he may leave Cuba for ever.

Her own patriots have said of her, "Were you to draw aside the brilliant mask which hides the state of the country, a lacerated and deformed skeleton would present itself."

Nor is she safe from foes within her citadels. Where the

* Lecture by the Earl of Carlisle.

genius of man is forced from its natural channel, it will rise, like the waters of the fountain, to the level of its source in another. Liberty brought to the frontiers of States soon finds it way into the heart of the country, and then farewell to all the false sentiment which would invest an ivy and moss-covered ruin with the light and majesty of a noble modern temple, and denies to modern people modern habits and necessities, and imposes its chain on the welfare of every class of the community.

If the history of man,—if past experience and present appearances do not deceive us, it may be confidently predicted that neither Cuba, Puerto Rico, nor Brazil, nor even the Southern States of America, can continue many years in the state in which they now exist.

There are signs of insecurity on the right hand and on the left, and many thoughts will arise unbidden in the statesman's mind while he muses on the prophecy of Berkeley,—

> "Westward the course of empire takes its way;
> The first *four* acts already past,
> The fifth shall close the drama with a day;
> Times noblest offspring is the last."

Yes, let this measure of justice to the enslaved African race be much longer deferred, and nature, provoked beyond further endurance, may rise in her strength and vindicate her own laws, and restore the credit of her own equal and just administration to the lasting punishment of those who have abused it.

Ominous and unsettled therefore as is the political horizon of the West, and of Cuba in particular, there is no reason for christian philanthropists to be dismayed. Moral and providential changes are in progress which will silently effect what the madness of revolutionists vainly attempt, and what tyrants and bigots in vain impede.

Even the attack of some other Lopez may be renewed, while the lust for territory, which unhappily the citizens of the United States display, and which with them has become such an absorbing passion, is too serious a trait in the character of a powerful neighbouring people to be disregarded.

The future of this lovely island who can predict, or rather who cannot foretell its destiny? It is talked of by American citizens as "The Sick Man;" and Mr. Ballou, ardently sympathising with the creoles in their desire for more just and tolerant government, enumerates a long list of their grievances—heavy

taxes, exclusion from office, censorship of the press, deprivation of all political rights, absurd and noxious interference, together with other acts equally oppressive and unjust, which he fears will soon precipitate an issue.

At the present time, notwithstanding the preparations recently made for the defence of Cuba, and which can only be regarded as a paroxysm of the government, the pithy phrase of Sully is equally applicable as in the time of its first utterance: "Spain is one of those states which have strong arms, but a weak and debilitated heart." Amidst the splendour of its court and the pomposity of its language, her Government feels itself really weak, and seeks to conceal its weakness by immobility. Tired of conflicts which resulted only in defeat, she has of late years aspired solely to the security of peace, and devoted her utmost care to avoid all questions and circumstances which would impose upon her administration efforts of which they did not feel themselves capable. Hence the recent conduct of America towards her. Spain is "*magni nominis umbra*"—has enough of name to shelter crime, but not enough vigour to repress it.

Under any circumstances Cuba will be free. The spirit of liberty, as we have seen, is abroad among her people. The fire is still smouldering within her citidel. A few who have dared to "do or die," have fallen, and their blood still marks the spot where they fell;—

> "But freedom's battle once begun,
> Bequeathed from bleeding sire to son,
> Though baffled oft is always won."

Statistics of the Naval and Military force as existing in 1853, given on official authority, inform us that Cuba has an army of infantry seventeen thousand five hundred men; cavalry, one thousand eight hundred and eight men; artillery, fifteen hundred men; sappers and miners, one hundred and thirty:—total, twenty thousand. This estimate does not include the civic guard, which is also a part of the regular troops. In addition to the above forces, there are on the island regiments of militia, infantry, and cavalry, comprising altogether a land force of twenty-four thousand four hundred and eighty-three troops, which, added to the subsequent arrivals from Spain, make the entire force since 1853, nearly twenty-five thousand men.

The naval force at the same period consisted of one frigate of forty-four guns; seven brigantines, carrying one hundred and four guns; eleven steam-vessels, with fifty-four guns; four

schooners, with eleven guns; two gun-boats, with six guns; and two transports; in all, twenty-five vessels, and two hundred and nineteen guns, manned by three thousand men. Two steam-ships of war were still more recently added.

The personal and material commercial marine force of the island is as follows: registered able men, two thousand and fifty two; disabled, four hundred and eighty-seven; number not in active service, four hundred and ninety-five.*

These united forces it is understood, having been considerably augmented since 1853, or within the last three years, now amount, as it is said, to upwards of thirty thousand men, well paid and officered; together with the addition of an armed squadron.

The number of men capable of bearing arms is estimated at three hundred and ninety-three thousand; namely: creole whites, one hundred and forty thousand; free coloured, forty thousand; Spaniards, twenty thousand; Spanish troops, twenty-three thousand; and slaves, one hundred and seventy thousand.

The military force, which is greatly efficient, being well disciplined and well proved, is considered necessary, not less as a security against the insurrection of the slaves than against American aggression.

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* Compendi de Geographia, &c.

CHAPTER XXIX.

Manners and Customs.—Odious system of police surveillance. Streets of Havana. Houses. Furniture. Dress of inhabitants of both sexes. Personal appearance and social characteristics of Spanish ladies and gentlemen. Managers of sugar estates. Peasants, &c. Public vehicles and drivers. Agriculture, trade, and commerce.

The characteristics of the original white inhabitants of Cuba (referring principally to those from old Spain) seem to have been pride and ambition. Their descendants exhibit to a still greater degree than their progenitors the Castilian sensitiveness and high punctillio, but also preserve much of that high sense of honour and integrity for which the Spanish character, among its best representatives, has ever been distinguished, and from which a singular taciturnity and hauteur would seem to have been always inseparable. The real Castilian and Andalusian hidalgoes are a class of men of whom it may be said, that if they have great pride, they have but little meanness. Their Cuban descendants differ widely, however, in energy and in some other respects from their ancestors, who, whatever may have been their morals, were men of consummate enterprise and bravery.

As in every country cursed with slavery, the principal inhabitants of Cuba are enervated by indolence and love of ease. An effeminate luxury distinguishes the residents of Havanna, in their houses, dress, pleasures, and occupations. Symptoms of satiety, langour, and dull enjoyment are everywhere exhibited,—the expiration of the spirit, if not of the breath of existence,—a kind of settled melancholy, the invariable effect of inactivity, especially of indolence coupled with vice. Like many others of our race in other countries, they seem to have drunk so deep in pleasure or voluptuousness, as to stir a sediment that renders the draught unpalatable.

All are addicted to games of chance, such as cards and lotteries, together with billiards and chess. With the love of bull-fights and cock-fights—those barbarous relics of a Vandal and savage age—they seem to be infatuated.

Although the Spaniards are a grave, yet they are a pleasure-seeking people. They may be said to be eminently a dancing nation. This favourite national amusement in Cuba, as in old Spain, is often enjoyed in the open air to the guitar and tambourine, each dancer keeping time with the castanets fastened to his hands or heels. In some shady sequestered thicket, or near some shaded fountain or rivulet, where nature holds her holiday, such groups are often to be found. The guitar or tambourine on such occasions is seldom silent; and on moonlight evenings these revelries are often protracted to a late hour, and to the fancy of the traveller might call up the gay group of Comus, or that described by the Roman bard,—

> "Jam Cytheria choros ducat Venus eminente Luna
> Junctæque, Nymphæ, Gratiæque decentes
> Alterno terram quatiunt pede."

Balls are a very common and favourite amusement here, as in all the West India islands; but, unlike the custom in English colonies, no invitation is required to attend them—a genteel dress is a sufficient introduction.

Music, also, is a favourite recreation; and musical instruments of various kinds and of extraordinary shapes and tones, are indispensable appurtenances to the boudoir of a Cuban belle. Guiltless of manual labour, in such trifling employments the life of these imprisoned beauties, these ladies of fashion, glides away with little variation; while that of the lower class is one perpetual scene of labour and exposure. But even the down-trodden slave has his seasons of amusement, few and far between as are the intervals of their recurrence; for even the broken spirit will sometimes regain its elasticity. Yes, the slave also has his concerts; but it must be confessed that no one with a musical ear, or unless he has resided many years in the country, and has discarded all European tastes and predilections, can be captivated with, or even patiently endure their attempts at harmony.

The more simple of the social amusements among the higher classes are the soft, light, airy dance of the bayadere to the cheerful sound of the castanets, the fandango, the sequidilla, or the more graceful bolero of their father land. The guitar is the favourite instrument of music with the ladies; and the pauses and cadences with which the fair Cubanas so feelingly yet so simply mark the more expressive parts of their plaintive airs, are indescribably soft and soothing; especially when sitting in

their verandahs in the calm stillness of a moonlight evening, —almost the only season of diversion and entertainment in the torrid zone,—and when the music, accompanied by the dulcet voice of the performer, is conveyed to a distance on the bland air. In family concerts, which are common, with the accompaniments of the tambourine and triangle, the rich notes swell upwards in their strength and sink in soft cadence to tones of melting harmony; now bursting forth in the full force of gladness, now blending together in dreamy, mellow music, and suddenly ceasing, or the soft but thrilling shake of one female voice rising upon the air, and its plaintive beauty stirring the very heart.

To a Cuban, or even to an European Spaniard, it scarcely need be said the practice of smoking cigars is common. Smoking would seem to a stranger to be a requisite of life to a Cuban; being indulged in, with few exceptions, from the highest to the lowest, at all hours, and in almost every place, at home and abroad. It has been said of the population of Cuba, that one-third is occupied in the preparation of cigars, and that the other two-thirds smoke them. It is a revolting practice when carried to excess, and much cannot be said in its favour under any circumstances; but when indulged in by *ladies*, it is intolerable. It is, however, very common among the senoritas of Havanna, both old and young. Those of the more respectable classes smoke tobacco in small cigars or cigarritos of paper, or inclosed in the leaves of maize called pachillos, and contained in a case of gold or silver, which latter receptacle is usually suspended by a chain or riband from the neck of the fair proprietor, and deposited in the bosom, from which they supply themselves or friends successively by a pair of tweezers of the same metal. This practice is so habitual to some of the fair sex, that it constitutes the employment of almost every leisure moment. Groups of them may be sometimes seen indulging this plebeian taste, sitting at the unglazed, prison-like windows of their domiciles at all hours of the day.

The propensity to gambling pervades all classes—the beggar as the prince, the duenna as the don. Hence it is not only exhibited in places of public resort and fashionable entertainment, but jugglers are to be seen in all parts of the city, seated upon a mat, on which are exhibited cards, dice, cups, balls, *&c.*, and urging sailors, loose Spaniards, and all passers by, with considerable volubility of tongue and earnestness of gesture, to

try their fortunes; to which, whoever is beguiled, is so, almost inevitably, to his serious disadvantage. These are chiefly *Sabbath* recreations, along with the bull-fights, which take place once a month, or more or less frequently, on that sacred day. And so deeply are the feelings of the populace wound up and centered in this last-named Sabbath recreation, that to interdict or even to control it would probably produce a revolution in the island.

The respect and devotion with which the fair sex are treated is especially remarkable, and is a Spanish characteristic which both history, romance, and poetry have combined to celebrate. A woman is regarded as a sacred object by a Cuban as by a Spaniard, and a true hidalgo would shrink from committing the slightest outrage on her person.

"White hands can never offend," is the universal consolation, even when feminine indiscretion becomes ungentle. The Spanish drama is crowded with incidents and beautiful sentiments founded on the extraordinary influence of women. The power of beauty and the influence of kings are the two great subjects of the Spanish stage.

Spanish courtesy or gallantry to a lady, indeed, is often, as would be thought at least in England, carried to an extreme. Hence, at an inn, or at a place of public entertainment, if in the presence of gentlemen, ladies are seldom allowed to pay their share of the charge, although the party may be strangers to each other. It is sometimes even so in the fashionable bazaars: one or more of the gentlemen present delicately signifies to the waiter, by a private sign, in order that he may receive no thanks, his intention to satisfy the demand, so that the waiter, on a request by his fair purchaser for his account, politely replies that the repast, or entertainment, or purchased article, of whatever kind, "costs nothing."

The inhabitants of Havanna, like those of almost all the regions within the tropics, can scarcely be said to have any literature. A few daily and weekly journals, added to European intelligence, supply almost all the taste for letters that is found in this metropolis of the West Indian archipelago. The arts and sciences, and historical recollections and facts, seldom disturb the thoughts of the enervated and avaricious population: they divide their time between effeminate pleasure, amassing wealth, and the gaming-table.

It has been questioned by some writers, but with no sufficient

reason, whether the physical influences of a tropical climate are not such as almost to preclude the probability of high literary efforts ever being made among a people subject to its enervating power. No doubt, however, but that some literary and scientific men, wherever educated, are to be found, in both the higher and middling classes of society. To expect to find literary attainment among the mass would be as unreasonable as for one to expect to "reap where he had not sown, and to gather where he had not strawed."

Out of a population of perhaps 500,000 free inhabitants, both white and coloured, about 1,000 only receive the blessing of lettered education of any kind; and more recently it has been proved, that there are only 10,000 children out of about 100,000 under tuition—the remaining 90,000 being abandoned to ignorance and vice. With this indifference to education in general, it is scarcely to be expected that the city is adorned by any of those literary and benevolent institutions which add such a lustre to the cities and towns of England and America, and which diffuse around them an atmosphere of moral energy and hope. No Bible, Tract, or Missionary societies, and but few, if any, Orphan asylums, or associations for the aged, infirm, and destitute, are to be found in Havanna any more than in anti-christian, or even than in once pagan, Rome.

It can scarcely be said that a liberal education is anything like universally diffused even among the higher classes, while there is but little taste for reading among those who have acquired the accomplishment. How the Cuban fair especially contrive to pass away their time without the aid of books, or the business engagements which occupy their sex in Protestant countries, is a mystery that few strangers can unravel. As before intimated, the church, the cigarretto, the guitar, and the siesta, are almost the only daily pastimes;—the excitements of love and convivial entertainments are left to the twilight and the midnight hour. These can occupy but a small portion of the day, —how fill up the immense vacuum? How complete the *dies solidus* without glancing into any book more interesting and instructive than the "Rosario de la Virgin," or the "Horas Castellanos,"—how eke it out in counting beads, though these are still more in use than prayer-books?

If it is a truth that the order, the moral habits, the piety, and the happiness of families are more emphatically under the control of females than of the other sex,—if, apart from the

indirect control they exercise over their own immediate families, they are entrusted with a moral power that hardly knows a limit,—if the practical virtue of the world, the tone of piety in the church, and the salvation of souls, are more affected, as is affirmed, by the current maxims and amusements of the day recognised by women than by the power or administration of civil government,—if, in morals, in religion, and in everything with which morals and religion are connected, females may do as much good or hurt as men ordinarily effect in the politics and government of the world, then how pitiable the condition, how degraded the character, and how awful the responsibility of the females of Havanna!

Generally it may be said that the political and moral condition of a state depends upon the rank held in it, and the religious character sustained by woman.

It is asserted, however, that the question of public instruction has of late years excited much interest among the creole population of Cuba. The impetus to this seems to have been given by the same liberal portion of the population as that which originated the establishment of the Royal Sociedades Economics of Havanna and St. Jago de Cuba.

At Havanna is the Royal University, with a rector and thirty professors, as also a large edifice called the Royal College of Havanna. There is a similar establishment at Puerto Principe; while both at Havanna and at St. Jago de Cuba there is a College in which the several branches of an ecclesiastical education are attended to, together with the humanities and philosophy. There are, besides, several private schools, but none are accessible to the masses; they are available only to the privileged few.

Among the few charitable institutions existing in Havanna, are the Infirmary or Hospital of St. Layare, and the Caza de Beneficia for Orphans; and it is somewhat remarkable that they are established on more liberal and equitable principles than similar institutions in the United States, in that their benefits are applicable to all classes, without distinction of caste or colour. But while the spirit of Christianity is exemplified in the conduct of these establishments, it is awfully outraged in other matters, particularly in the burial of the dead. In the great Cemetery, "Campo Santo," the spirit of heathenism, or, rather, of despotism, prevails. The bodies of the rich are interred within the lofty walls of this place of the dead with pompous

ceremonials and gilded inscriptions;—the poor are carried to and deposited in their last resting-place without any token or memorial, in some cases without even a green sod over them, or a flower or a shrub to speak of life above the grave. In one part of this public dormitory of the dead is the burial-place of the negro slave, covered with heaped-up mounds of bones and skulls. It is forbidden for a negro to be brought hither in a coffin; the bodies are therefore thrown wholly or half-naked into the ground, and quicklime, or some kind of earthy preparation which rapidly consumes the flesh, is thrown upon them. In the course of from eight to fourteen days the bodies are disinterred to make room for other corpses, and the bones are cast up in heaps to dry and whiten in the sun.

As previously intimated, the first impression that strikes an Englishman on entering Havanna as repugnant to his sense of liberty, is the military law and system of *espionage*, which appears to govern everything, and to influence every department of the civil and social state. An air of despotism seems to depress the whole population. Freedom exists only in imagination. Justice, equity, and integrity are discarded. The strong hand of power uppermost rules all. As a natural consequence, bribery and chicanery are tolerated and recognised, from the highest functionary to the meanest official. In all countries where the servants of Government are underpaid there is a temptation to resort to secret or open plunder as a means of increasing their emoluments: thus in Cuba, as already stated, the official guardians of law and order are the first to break them.

No passengers can land without passports and fiadors. The cost of the former is six dollars and a half. Not without these, obtained at so exorbitant an expense, can you proceed to any part of the country, or even to the environs of the city. At every ferry, wharf, stair or stone for embarkation, in every street, lane, alley, in every hole and corner you encounter the chaco (a kind of military policeman), with his bright-barrelled musket, linen coatee, yellow worsted epaulettes, and saffron visage.

Nor less striking to a stranger on first entering the city, especially to a Briton, are the houses, shops, men, women, costumes, animals, and carriages; all present a remarkable contrast to any and everything either English or American.

The streets in Havanna are formed generally at right angles, and are narrow, confined, irregular, unpaved and undrained,

shaded by heavy awnings, while here and there is seen a stone-built mansion, through the arched entrance to which is visible an exquisite garden laid out with taste, and adorned with beautiful flowers. Causeways line each side of the street, but they are so narrow as scarcely to allow two persons to pass on them. Many of the thoroughfares also are, in wet weather, dirty and muddy, to the no small inconvenience of pedestrians, especially on the passing and repassing of carriages. Some of the more public streets are paved, though very indifferently, and the frequent rains, or rather cataracts, washing away the soil and sand from between the huge stones, render the footing insecure, and therefore dangerous both for man and beast.

The massive *houses*, with their projecting parapets, as solid and heavy as if each were designed to stand a siege, together with the awnings, cast a constant shade over the narrow streets, so that during the heat of the day any unnecessary exposure to the sun may be avoided. The houses have no window-sashes, nor jalousies, but iron or wooden bars, or gratings, with loose curtains inside. By this arrangement and style of building, the interior is necessarily made gloomy, even at midday, but at the same time that the light is thus excluded, its inmates are defended from the heat; an advantage which, in a tropical climate, more than compensates for the inconveniences otherwise sustained. A current of air also passes through and ventilates the lofty rooms, but during rain, and when the shutters are closed, the inmates are involved in almost total darkness.

The houses are plain in their architecture, and are after the Moorish or Saracenic model,—they seldom exceed two stories in height, and are usually painted blue, green, yellow, orange, or some other bright or gaudy colour, frequently adorned with fresco painting. They are said to be tinted to avoid the glare of sunlight on the white walls, which is considered injurious to the sight.* The buildings in general present a great mixture of regularity and irregularity—of old and new—of splendid and delapidated. Close beside an elegant arcade, with its gaily painted walls, stands a half ruinous wall, the fresco paintings of which are half obliterated or have peeled off with the decayed mortar.

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* The houses in Jamaica and other West India islands, excepting the Spanish, are usually surrounded by jalousies or standing venetian blinds painted green, thus obviating inconvenience to the sight.

All residences of the best description are built upon one unvarying plan—that of a hollow quadrangle. Flat roofs are almost universal, and are much occupied in the evening. These terraces are called *azoteon*, and are surrounded by a low parapet, ornamented with urns and other similar devices. Utility is principally studied in this arrangement of the houses, as it is unquestionably the best for promoting a free circulation of air.

A lofty portal, with solid mahogany doors from fifteen to twenty feet high, opens to the entrance hall, serving as a coach-house for the *volante*, or as a store for merchandise. A small square court filled with shrubs, plants, flowers, and creepers, ornamented and rendered doubly attractive by a tiny "*jet d'eau*," or larger fountain in the centre, which is considered an almost necessary appendage to every respectable domicile, because of the delightfully cool and agreeable appearance they present.

The interior court is surrounded by galleries, attached to which are the sitting, public, dining, and bed rooms, with the general staircase leading to the whole; the servant's rooms and offices occupy the basement story, and frequently shops of mean appearance are seen opening to the street below a magnificent *suite* of apartments. There is, however, a heavy grandeur and an antique, almost vandal character about the whole which cannot fail to strike the stranger; but with all this magnificence, occasionally exhibited, there is a great deficiency in comfort and convenience.

The floors of the houses in general are either of hardwood, plank, terrace, or tiles. Some are in imitation of mosaics. A few are flagged with marble, but this is by no means common. A carpet is utterly unknown. The nearest approach to this European luxury is a grass mat tastefully plaited, called an "estera."

The iron bars in every window remind a stranger of a common prison or a penitentiary. These gratings are the substitute for glass, or standing venetian blinds, throughout even the inner apartments, as well as in the exterior of the buildings, so that the interior of the best houses partakes in appearance so much more of a prison than an abode of innocence as to occasion reflections as to the cause of this internal defence, this security of the domestic retreat, this fortified place of refuge, as also to suggest the obvious and natural conclusion,—Slavery! pestilential slavery! fear of its consequences,—terror at the

chance of an outbreak,—the still small voice that whispers of deep wrong inflicted, and conjures up a phantom, a dim and shadowy image, in the minds of the Spaniards, of their splendid rooms converted into citadels, valuable for their strength, yet yielding doubtful protection to the hard-hearted and oppressive taskmasters.

The bedrooms have but little privacy; the principal apartments have often bare walls, or here and there exhibit gaudy dull paintings, and are heavily, though in some instances, elegantly furnished. The furniture of others, whose tenants are less wealthy than the most privileged orders, is inadequate to the size of the rooms, and otherwise unattractive, except to the lovers of the antique; some old-fashioned, high-backed, hardwood chairs, covered with leather and gilt nails, as if made at Grenada in the time of the Moorish kings, with a profusion of tarnished gilding,—a table or two in the same style, the seeming relics of the first importations of such conveniences from old Spain, with a long grass hammock slung from the ceiling, intersecting the room diagonally and nearly touching the floor.

In some of these establishments *beds* are never to be seen; their place is supplied by stretchers, which are simply transverse pieces of wood, covered with canvas;—these, with cots and hammocks, that are folded and put aside during the day, embrace almost all the furniture of the sleeping apartments.

In the hotels (those kept by Americans and some other foreigners probably excepted) the sleeping places are cots without mattresses or coverlets, in a room with red tiled floors, without glazed windows, but, as in private houses, with iron-barred apertures in the wall for the admission of light and air. The bill of fare, especially beyond the precincts of the city, is usually not very tempting to a fastidious palate. It consists of eggs, fried pork, and Castilian wines, with bread and vegetables—the meals only twice a day.

The celebrated "olla podrida," composed of fowl, with a proportion of beef, pork, garbanzos, onions, and other vegetables, with garlic, saffron, and pepper, may here be had in true national perfection.

Havanna, as to house-rent, boarding, clothing, food, as to almost everything, indeed, necessary to support life and promote its comfort, is said to be one of the most expensive places in the world.

In personal appearance the dons and hidalgoes of Cuba are naturally assimilated to their ancestors of old Spain; while the character of the general population is extremely varied, both as to physical features and costume,—circumstances which add greatly to the picturesque effect of the whole scene,—Spanish, French, American, Italian, Dutch, African, Creole, Indian, Chinese, presenting every shade of colour and variety of countenance that can be imagined. These, with their diversified costumes, combine to form a picture of living mortality at Havanna which, to the same extent, and with equal power of pictorial expression, is not perhaps equalled in any other city in the world, not even excepting New Orleans.

The different styles of physiognomy among the natives of old Spain are also very evident in the population of the city. One has refined features, an oval countenance, a proud and often a gloomy expression—this distinguishes those of Castilian descent. Another has a round countenance, flat, broad features, and a jovial but plebeian expression—this marks the Catalonian. The former is spare in form; the latter stout. The Castilian is generally found among Government officials; the Catalonian among merchants and tradespeople.

The ordinary dress of the whites, such as merchants and professional men, differ but little from that of the residents in other West India Islands, except as to the prevalence of gingham coats or coatees, with skirts flying in the breeze, and, to some extent, white jean small-clothes, with white silk stockings. Whiskered and mustachioed faces, shaded by huge broad-brimmed panama hats, are not uncommon among the inhabitants of the English Antilles. In general the clothing is light. Neckcloths or stocks are uncommon, except at set parties. The necks of shirts are in general adorned with gold buttons or clasps; the collars are allowed to hang down loose after the manner of those seen in the portraits of Lord Byron. Some, also, within doors, wear a kind of black or white skull-cap, similar to those worn by the French, while the hair is usually worn close cut to the head. On particular occasions, however, the hidalgoes appear in the costumes characteristic of the province of old Spain that gave them birth.

The full dress of a mayoral or overseer of an estate is thus described:—"A wide-rimmed straw hat; blue striped small clothes fastened to the waist; a blue embroidered shirt hanging loosely over them like a sack; a very large straight sword, with

a silver handle ornamented with precious stones; the shirt collar and sleeves confined with gold buckles; an embroidered cambric handkerchief tied loosely round the neck; pumps, cut quite low, and adorned with heavy silver spurs."

Occasionally an European-Spaniard is to be seen, with an open jacket of green velvet highly embroidered, with light leggings of the same material, ornamented with a profusion of silver buttons; his linen of the purest white; his high round hat decked with beads, and carelessly or jauntily turned aside; a second jacket also richly embroidered; with dark curls carefully arranged round a high-crowned, broad-brimmed hat; and a countenance of manly beauty.

A Catalonian or an Andorran cavalier is seen in his vest of blue velvet; his red silk sash and fine cotton stockings appearing over his hempen spartillas. Not unfrequently a peasant is to be seen, with a red Montero cap, with his capa over his shoulder, and with loose linen bragos or trousers. A Guigaro, with his wild, dark eye, expressive gesture, and impurturbable self-possession, is seen in a richly-worked shirt of fine linen, worn on the outside, as is usual; a long and elegantly-embroidered cambric sash fastening to his side the silver-handled sword or machette; silver spurs and low slippers. And sometimes Monteros or countrymen are seen galloping through the streets, each with his high-crowned straw hat with broad rim, his loose shirt over his other garments, its tail fluttering in the breeze, and his long sword lashed to his waist by a handkerchief, and dangling at his back. The Creole-Spaniard is sometimes dressed in a camisa of striped gingham, breeches of ticking, and a chequita or sleeved tunic of the same material as the camisa; half-boots or mocassins of untanned hide, a sportsman's belt, a girdle furnished with a heavy hunting knife, and a wide-flapped sombrero or hat of palm leaf, complete his equipment. Of some of the Caballeros it may almost be said, as was reported of some of the black slaves of Darien, that their whole summer costume consists of a shirt collar and a pair of spurs.

The large black eye, and raven hair escaping in endless tresses,—the dark expressive glance,—the soft, blood-tinted olive of the glowing complexion, make the unwilling Englishman confess the majesty and beauty of the Spanish female. The Moorish eye is the most characteristic feature of the Andalusian. This is very full, and reposes on a liquid some-

what yellow bed; of an almond shape; black and lustrous. Their eyes have been pleasantly compared to dormant lightnings, terrible in wrath, and hiding liquid fires.

In dignity of mien and gait the fair Castilian and Andalusian are allowed to be unrivalled. Their deportment is dignified and queen-like. Their every motion is instinct with grace. In stature they are generally tall and well-proportioned; as also erect in their figures, which are generally good, no efforts being made to alter the natural shape. A finely-formed and diminutive foot is highly estimated by the Spaniards in general among the attributes of female beauty, and hence great attention is usually paid by the Spanish ladies to this part of their persons on their appearance in public.

"Excepting some rare instances of Irishwomen of true Milesian descent," says a well-known writer, "none but a Spanish lady can *walk*. French, English, and Scotch only stump, shuffle, and amble in comparison." In no other respect, however, are we willing to admit that the descendants of ancient Hesperia are rivals of the fair daughters of Albion and her colonies.

The variety of costumes which occasionally appear on the public Alamedas, as on the Prado in Madrid, renders the scene peculiarly attractive. The gentlemen in their capas mingled with the ladies in their mantillas; the white-kilted Valencian contrasts with the velveteen glittering Andalusian; the sable-clad priest with the soldier; the peasant with the muleteer; all meet on perfect equality as in church; and all conduct themselves with equal decorum, good breeding, and propriety.

Few Spaniards walk arm-in-arm, and still more rarely is this good old English fashion followed by a Spanish lady and gentleman, married or single. Also, in accordance with Cuban etiquette, ladies are accustomed to bow to their acquaintance in the street, but seldom make a courtesy. One of the most marked characteristics of the Spaniards, both male and female, is their love of dress. There is no self-denial to which all classes and sexes will not cheerfully submit in order to preserve a respectable external appearance. But Spaniards, even the most wealthy only really dress when they go abroad on business or pleasure. At home they are enveloped in a *deshabille* which is far from either costly or elegant. Those whose circumstances will not admit of an expensive costume, seldom or ever leave their domiciles, except at a very early hour of the day, when they are less liable to recognition.

The full dress of the ladies, as seen on the Alamada and some other public places, is remarkably costly and superb,—I should rather say, elegant,—after the style of old Spain; beautifully embroidered; with lace mantillas or scarfs, the ends hanging down on each side, or crossing over the bosom; and in their hand the never-failing, never-to-be-forgotten companion of the Spanish lady—the expressive fan. Black is almost the universal colour, and the robe is in general most tastefully worked and vandyked.

The mantilla, used also as a veil, is usually of black silk or lace, sometimes of white lace, thrown over the head, supported by a high comb of a value in accordance with the circumstances or pride of the individual, leaving the face uncovered, and displaying the flowers with which the wearer often adorns her dark tresses; the ends of the mantilla either crossing over the bosom, falling gracefully over the shoulders, or confined to the waist by the arms, or by a richly worked and ornamented zone—*la centura;*—a style of head-dress this which is said to create the graceful and dignified mien and gait for which the Spanish ladies are so celebrated. Hence those who have never worn it are said to be quite plebeian in their gait and figure in comparison.

Some wear no other head-dress than the hair variously arranged and ornamented. The most usual is to plait or roll it as a bandeau round the head, the crown of which is fastened to a knot, surmounted by a comb, after the manner of the ancient Romans. Some also wear a cap of fine linen, formed like a mitre, called *hamito*, over which is thrown a veil—that beautiful emblem of female modesty and elegance. But the most becoming ornament to the Spanish maiden is the *trensa*—an arrangement of the hair in two long, dark, shining braids.

Some are seen with a *pollera*, or thin silk petticoat, and a thin white jacket worn loose, or a short tunic when they go abroad. The richness of their dress consists of the finest linen, laces, and jewels, the latter so disposed as to occasion very little inconvenience, and to produce the most ornamental effect. In Cuba, as in old Spain, the prevalence of dark tints in costume is remarkable, black having always been the favourite national colour.

In this detail of the full dress of the Spanish lady, the *fan* is too characteristic to have no more than a passing notice. Its use is universal; and its size or weight and splendour is the pride of the fair proprietor. Some are of the value of from

twenty-five to one hundred dollars each. The most costly are of ivory set with gold, and ornamented with small oval mirrors on the outer sides. The manœuvering with the fan is a regular science, in which the Spanish lady comprehends the whole language of signs, and by which she converses freely with the friend of her heart.

The morning dress of the Spanish lady, or the principal morning vestment, as already intimated, is either a loose flowing robe or a black or white silk kind of habit-skirt (*basquina*) over a white under-garment, made full from the waist upwards, plentifully adorned with frills and bows—the former appearing as if suspended by small straps from the shoulder, and either covering or supplying all minor defects and deficiences of attire.

Some of the middling class and the free blacks dress very fantastically; in muslin gowns, scarlet mantillas, and light blue or violet-coloured satin shoes. Many of these women are really beautiful; and their jet-black hair, and clear, rich, olive complexions are often becomingly relieved by a gay-coloured silk handkerchief, which the French and Spaniards, and West Indians in general, know well how to arrange about their heads with good effect. Black females are occasionally seen in shining calico frocks, with silk shoes worn slipshod, red shawls, the hair arranged in fine braids, and with a bandanna or other handkerchief as a head-dress:—

> "Black, but such as in esteem
> Prince Memnon's sister might beseem."

But there are other inhabitants of Havanna, and throughout Cuba generally—down-trodden slaves—who appear in the streets with scarcely a rag to cover their emaciated forms.

The carriages in use, and which stand in the great square and in different parts of the city like the hackney coaches in London, are called *volantes*. They are of the most grotesque form and clumsy construction that can be imagined—a sort of cabriolet, with four posts or uprights supporting a canopy covered with leather, with a high dash-iron or splash-board in front, and surrounded with curtains of blue or scarlet cloth, that may be let down as rain or dust require. The vehicle is supported by massive, straight, columnar shafts and two wheels, each of the wheels six feet in diameter, and placed so behind the centre of gravity, giving the vehicle a very awkward appearance, but a very easy, agreeable motion. "They are," says the Earl of Carlisle, "as if they had been intended

to carry Don Quixote." Of anything in the shape of a vehicle for the accommodation of human kind it bears the nearest resemblance perhaps to a sedan chair;—open in front and partly on each side; suspended by springs on the cumbrous shafts described; the body resting upon the springs between the wheels and the horses, the latter being considerably in advance of the carriage itself, which for the most part is supported by them. These vehicles are drawn by mules or small horses, and driven by negro slaves *a la postilion*,—the drivers ensconced in a grotesque livery, in one hand exhibiting a huge thong of bullock's hide, and with the other guiding their steeds. The harness of the animals is in perfect keeping with the habiliments of the drivers and the rest of the equipage.

Some of the private volantes are very elegant, though in the same style, and the liveries exceedingly rich, corresponding with the rank and wealth of the owner—such as an embroidered coat, cocked hat, and large hussar boots with silver spurs, the latter seeming to have been manufactured in the time of the crusades, the rowel of them an inch or more in diameter. The driver of one of these vehicles is called a *calashero*, and both he and the horse are sometimes richly caparisoned with silver to the value of several thousand dollars. Some of the mules and horses for riding are arrayed in the same grotesque style with high demipique saddles, together with massive stirrups and bridles with huge mamaluke bits. The spectacle, altogether of man and beast, would form a study for a comic painter.

The cabriolets or bullock cars that are in common use in the country, are as rude in their construction as those represented in the illustrations of the "Georgics" of our oldest Virgils.

The trade of Havanna is immense. Upwards of one thousand vessels are supposed to enter it for purposes of commerce in a year. Its revenue is twenty millions of dollars, and its outward and inward trade sixty millions.

The principal products of the country—a very considerable part of which are exported from this city—are sugar and tobacco. The tobacco, as is well known, is of more exquisite flavour than that of any part of America. The very best quality is said to be the monopoly of royalty.

Among the lesser staples may be reckoned ginger, long pepper, mastic, cocoa or chocolate, coffee, bees' wax, honey, manioc, and aloes.

There are at present in Cuba 1650 sugar plantations, 5128

cattle farms, 13 chocolate plantations, 224 cotton plantations, 34,432 fruit and vegetable farms, 7979 tobacco plantations, and 2284 *colmenaries* or farms devoted exclusively to the production of honey and wax.

The amount of the products of the island in 1852 was as follows:—

Sugar	29,165,238 arrobas	7,201,309 cwt.
Coffee	1,166,902 "	291,725 "
Tobacco	1,776,160 "	444,040 "
Molasses	267,185 hhds.	
Brandy	39,411 pipes.	
Honey	106,175 barrels.	
Bees' Wax	74,903 arrobas	18,725 "

The entire exports of Cuba in 1851 amounted to 31,841,683 dollars, and the entire imports to 32,311,430 dollars.

The quantity of copper ore exported from the island from 1841 to 1850 inclusive was as follows:—

1841	693,050	quintals.	1846	635,654	quintals.
1842	763,971	"	1847	565,495	"
1843	768,650	"	1848	656,491	"
1844	2,003,587	"	1849	583,300	"
1845	860,922	"	1850	552,288	"

The aggregate value of the imports and exports in 1850 are thus reported:—

Ports.	Exports. dollars.	Imports. dollars.	Total. dollars.
Spanish	3,071,084	8,640,625	11,711,710
United States	8,359,252	6,653,360	15,012,613
French	1,862,596	1,747,580	3,610,176
English	7,061,056	6,117,669	13,178,725
Spanish America	578,237	2,001,664	259,902
German	1,871,620	2,107,293	3,978,913
Belgian	963,393	318,881	1,282,274
Brazilian	—	33,882	33,882
Dutch	554,450	190,479	744,929
Danish	279,937	520,200	800,138
Russian	446,770	—	446,770
Swiss	11,262	—	11,262
Italian	572,286	13,297	585,583
Mercantile deposits	—	638,291	638,291
Total	25,630,943	28,983,227	54,614,170
In Spanish bottoms	6,020,635	18,455,072	24,474,675
In Foreign	19,610,308	10,528,155	30,139,495

Thus, of the whole exportation 31.77 per cent. went to English ports, 28.09 to United States, 13.87 to Spanish, 7.60 to German, 5.41 to French, and the remainder to other ports; and of the importations 29.18 per cent. were from Spanish

ports, 24.99 from United States, 22.07 from English, 8.34 from Spanish-American, 6.91 from German, 6.03 from French, and the remainder from other ports.

The commerce of the United States with Cuba in 1850, according to the returns of the Federal Treasury, was valued at 15,282,695 dollars, of which the exports amounted to 4,990,297 dollars, and the imports to 10,292,398 dollars. The shipping employed in the trade consisted of "Shipping entered the United States—American, 249,307 tons, and foreign, 33,030 tons;" and of "Shipping cleared the United States—American, 254,018 tons, and foreign, 29,703 tons."

The revenue of Cuba for the ten years from 1841, has been as follows:—

Year.	Maritime Revenue. dollars.	Internal Revenue. dollars.	Total Revenue. dollars.
1841	7,266,464	4,650,835	11,917,299
1842	7,383,346	4,731,496	12,114,843
1843	9,987,017	3,407,040	10,394,057
1844	7,160,631	3,329,621	10,490,252
1845	5,370,748	3,629,252	9,000,000
1846	6,232,967	4,907,811	11,140,779
1847	7,494,330	5,314,383	12,808,713
1848	7,396,726	6,038,715	13,435,441
1849	6,429,160	5,840,260	12,269,420
1850	6,721,250	5,527,462	12,248,712

The above sums have been disbursed in about the following proportions: Civil expenses of the island, 17 per cent.; Military, 45 per cent.; Naval, 13 per cent.; other expenses, 10 per cent.; and 15 per cent. to the Spanish government in Europe.

The circulating medium is entirely metallic. The weights, measures, and moneys are those of Spain, but the French metrical system is about to be introduced.

The number of cattle on the island is 898,199: in the Occidental department, 267,033; in the Central, 458,166; and in the Oriental, 173,000.

The following is a statement of the *value* of the principal articles of Cuban produce in 1850:—

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Garden fruits	14,839,050	Beef	3,605,780
Sugar	16,699,924	Pork	1,346,055
Esculents and fodder	6,097,080	Eggs	1,166,880
Tobacco	5,042,229	Poultry	1,074,216
Coffee	2,206,131	Milk	325,040
Indian corn	1,884,982	Hides	180,289
Charcoal	1,750,110	Mutton	120,000
Cedar, mahogany, &c.	1,711,193		
Molasses	1,462,728	Total	50,791,463
Other agric. products	3,728,175		

The quantities of the principal productions of Cuba, exported from the island in the ten years ending with 1850, have been as follows:—

Year.	Sugar. arrobas*	Rum. pipes†	Molasses. hogsh.‡	Coffee. arrobas*	Wax. arrobas*	Tobacco. arrobas*	Cigars. Thous.
1841	13,272,902	11,302	131,390	1,235,006	32,024	230,303	850,856
1842	13,062,288	10,227	119,138	1,998,846	33,384	237,713	751,445
1843	14,225,660	13,810	191,693	1,630,782	48,101	230,303	1,289,985
1844	16,153,052	6,396	172,431	1,240,032	34,276	237,713	792,525
1845	7,604,580	4,120	121,322	550,322	39,251	288,329	1,022,525
1846	15,803,884	9,032	203,597	817,662	41,716	353,041	766,782
1847	20,396,976	19,432	252,840	932,154	54,995	372,780	1,224,060
1848	19,650,488	16,339	228,726	694,137	50,110	251,025	807,403
1849	17,598,144	11,640	246,570	877,137	35,691	160,765	618,600
1850	19,993,808	11,825	269,044	520,134	58,194	319,125	1,068,200

Notwithstanding the unsettled state of Cuba and her cloudy future, internal improvements have been progressing. Railroads have been constructed in several localities. There are at present lines of railway extending over three hundred and fifty-one miles, connecting some of the most important places. They unite Havanna to Matanzas and Cardenas, and extend to Botobano, St. Fillipe, Puerto Principe, &c.

The electric telegraph is also in operation in several parts of Cuba. The wires in general follow the railroads, and may be said to intersect the country, embracing east, west, and south, to Botobano, Havanna, St. Jago de Cuba, Matanzas, and Cardenas.

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* An arroba is 25 lbs.—the Spanish and American pound nearly equal.
† Pipa, about 115 gallons. ‡ A hogsh is equal to 56 gallons.

CHAPTER XXX.

CLIMATE, SCENERY, &c.—Description of hurricane in the tropical seas. Vegetable productions. Rivers. Mountains. Domestic and wild animals. General geological formations. Mineral riches. Principal objects of attraction to a stranger. Architecture and general description of churches. Cathedral. Church of San Domingo. Vice regal palace. Chapel of Columbus. Statue of Ferdinand. Admiralty. Arsenal. Post office. Inquisition. American hotel. Alamedas. Plazas. Royal tobacco manufactory. Convent at Regla. Plaza del Toros or colosseum for bull fights. Reflections. Conclusion.

The climate of Cuba, especially in the suburbs of Havanna, is considered the most salubrious of any of the West India Islands, with the exception of Puerto Rico. It is impossible to convey to those who have never been among the beautiful islands of these tropical seas any idea of the fragrant delightfulness of the early dawn. The exquisite freshness of the morning, and the soft coolness of the breezy evening, when the very soul seems refreshed and strengthened, and the pulse of life beats fuller and clearer, produce sensations to be enjoyed only—never to be described.

Havanna itself, however, is unhealthy, partly from a want of drainage and general cleanliness, but principally from its being situated near a wide-spreading morass, pregnant with malaria, generating fever and the other pestilent diseases so fatal to European strangers. The climate differs considerably from that of Jamaica in temperature, although the difference of position in the two islands does not exceed five degrees. In the cold season the thermometer almost every year descends in Havanna to 60°, and sometimes to 55°; whilst at Kingston and Spanish Town it is seldom seen below 67° or 68°. The meridian heat in Havanna is 77°; that of July, the hottest month, 84°; and that of the coldest, 70°. Ice is sometimes formed at about three hundred feet above the level of the sea; while in Jamaica, congelation does not take place but at an altitude of from seven thousand to eight thousand feet. Snow, however, never, or but very rarely, falls in Cuba, even on its highest mountains. The changes of the temperature are also greater and more sudden in Havanna than in Kingston and in Jamaica generally.

Cuba has thus the most temperate climate of all the West Indies. At Ubajay, fifteen miles from Havanna, the thermometer has been known to go down to zero. At times, however, the heat is so excessive as to convert life into bare existence; and the tempests are terrific, the clouds being surcharged through the much greater absorption caused by a tropical sun.

The evenings are usually brilliant and beautiful, with soft, blue skies, and a freshness only to be appreciated near the equator, where the stillness of the atmosphere and the suffocating sultriness of the day wellnigh exhaust all the energies of man's nature.

At the same time there is a great variety of temperature in the mountains, occasioned by their different elevation above the sea. Elevation above the level of the sea, or the general level of a country, as is well known to the intelligent reader, causes a regular variation of temperature. The first 300 feet usually makes a difference of about one degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer. After ascending 300 feet, it is estimated that the thermometer falls a degree in 295 feet, then in 277, 252, 223, and 192 feet successively.

On these principles the limit of perpetual frost has been calculated. It is made a little more than 15,000 feet at the equator, and from that to 13,000 feet between the tropics, and from 9,000 to 4,000 feet between latitudes 40° and 59°. It has been found, however, that the above rule is subject to great variations, owing probably to the course and superposition of the atmospheric currents which prevail in different altitudes.

Colder currents are often found resting upon, or interposed between, those of a higher temperature; and *vice versa*. On the Himalaya Mountains in Asia, between the latitudes of 28° and 34° north, the region of vegetation has been found to extend several thousand feet above the supposed line of congelation in those latitudes.

It is also remarkable that the line of perpetual snow is found at a much greater altitude on the northern side of these mountains than on the southern side in a lower latitude. From this it may be inferred that the temperature in high regions, as well as in lower situations, is greatly affected by the geographical course and physical condition of the currents of atmosphere which prevail in these regions; and the atmosphere of Cuba, it is well known, is particularly affected by its contiguity to the gulf stream.

From the great difference between the temperature of the day and night in the mountain regions, owing to the frequent calmness and stillness that prevail, added to the heat of the atmosphere and the cloudless skies, the deposition of dew is often so abundant as almost to supply the want of rain, or at least to preserve vegetation in a state of verdure, when in the plains scarcely a blade of green grass is to be seen.

The splendour of the early dawn in Cuba, as in the tropical islands in its vicinity, has been referred to. The whole sky is often so resplendent that it is difficult to determine where the orb of day will appear. Small fleecy clouds are often seen floating on the north wind, and as they hover over the mountains and meet the rays of the sun, are changed into liquid gold, and a hundred intensely vivid dyes more splendid than the tints of the rainbow. During the cooler months the mornings are delightful until about ten o'clock, the air soon after dawn becoming agreeably elastic, and so transparent that distant objects appear as if delineated upon the bright surface of the air; the scenery everywhere, especially when viewed from an eminence, is indescribably rich and glowing; the tops of the rising grounds and the summits of the mountains are radiant with a flood of light; while the vapour is seen creeping along the valleys, here concealing the entrance to some beautiful glen, and there wreathing itself fantastically around a tall spire or groves of palm trees, that mark the site of a populous village.

The finest and most gorgeous sunsets occur in the West Indian Archipelago during the rainy seasons. The sky is then sublimely mantled with gigantic masses of cloud glowing with a thousand gorgeous dyes, and seeming to collect at the close of day as though to form a couch for the sun's repose. In these he sinks, flooding them with glory; touching both heavens and earth with gold and amber brightness long after he has flung his beams across the other hemisphere, or perhaps half-revealing himself through gauze-like clouds—a crimson sphere at once rayless and of portentous size.

The azure arch, which by an optical illusion limits our view on every side, seems here, and in the tropics generally, higher than in England,—even higher than in Italy. Here is seen, in a perfection compared to which even Italian heavens are vapid and uninteresting, that pure serene, boundless sky,—that atmosphere of clear blue or vivid red, which so much contributes to enrich the pencil of Claude Lorraine.

When looking out towards the sea from a high mountain-range, the water and the firmament have appeared one scene of deep and brilliant blue, reminding the student of the Bible of the beautiful interrogation of Job, "Hast thou spread out the sky strong as a molten looking-glass?" an allusion to the ancient mirrors, which were not of glass but of polished steel, and possessed, therefore, much of that brilliant, deep blue cast, which is so characteristic and striking in an Arabian sky, of whose depth of tint no one can form a correct idea who has not been in equatorial regions.

The atmosphere of Cuba, as everywhere within the tropics, except when the high winds prevail, is so unpolluted, so thin, so elastic, so dry, so serene, and so almost inconceivably transparent and brilliant, that every object is distinct and clearly defined as if cut out of the clear blue sky. All travellers agree in praising the calm depths of the intensely blue and gloriously bright skies of inter-tropical latitudes.

In the temperate zone, it is estimated that about 1,000 stars are visible to the naked eye at one time; but here, from the increased elevation and wider extent of the vault, owing to the clearness of the atmosphere, especially as seen from a high mountain-chain,* there is every reason to suppose that the number is greatly augmented. If, however, these luminaries are not seen here in greater numbers, they certainly shine with greater brilliancy.

The different constellations are indeed so greatly magnified as to give the impression that the power of the eye is considerably increased. Venus rises like a little moon, and in the absence of the greater, casts a distinguishable shadow from the larger buildings or trees; while the satellites of Jupiter are sometimes distinctly visible through a telescope of ordinary power.

By night, the Southern Cross, the glory of the Centaur stars, and the magnificent star *Canopus* in the ship Argo, so dear for its legendary associations, stand bright above the horizon in the southern heavens,† while the planets shine

* Saussure has observed that the higher we ascend on mountains, the deeper and blacker the sky becomes, so that the deepest blue ribbon is hardly deep enough to represent it.

† The Constellation of the Cross, that beautiful and expressive symbol of the Christian's faith, which, from its blessed associations and from its position, can scarcely fail to draw his thoughts as well as his eyes, from earth to heaven, is thus noticed by Baron Humboldt, when not far from Cuba:—"The lower regions of the air were loaded with vapour for some days. We saw distinctly for the first time

forth with amazing magnitude and brilliancy; and the moon, when she takes her place in the deepening blue of the sky, bathes the whole hemisphere with an exquisite light which has all the brilliancy of day without its glare.

It is even said that an occultation of Venus is not unfrequently visible in Cuba at noonday by the help of a pocket telescope.

Stars are here also seen that are not visible in an English or an European sky. There, the northern Polar star is directly vertical, but here, the north and south poles are nearly in the horizon; thus many of the constellations around the arctic pole, that never set in Europe, here scarcely rise, but in their stead, Orion through the north pursues the Pleiades; Sirius, or the star in the leg of Bootes, is in the zenith; in the south appears the Wolf, and the Great Bear is scarcely above the horizon. Here, also, among many other splendid constellations unseen in an English sky, are the Ark, the Raven, or Noah's Dove, the Altar, the Cross, the Centaur, the Serpent, and the River Eridanus.

The Milky way, which in the temperate zone has the appearance of a luminous phosphorescent cloud, and, as is well-known, derives its brightness from the diffused light of myriads of stars condensed into so small a space that fifty thousand of them are estimated to pass across the disc of the telescope in an hour,

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the cross of the south, only in the night of the 4th and 5th of July, in the 16th degree of latitude. It was strongly inclined, and appeared from time to time between the clouds, the centre of which, furrowed by uncondensed lightning, reflected a silver light. The pleasure felt on discovering the southern cross was warmly shared by such of the crew as had lived in the colonies. In the solitude of the seas we hail a star as a friend from whom we have been long separated. Among the Portuguese and the Spaniards, peculiar motives seem to increase this feeling; a religious sentiment attaches them to a constellation, the form of which recalls the sign of the faith, planted by their ancestors in the deserts of the New World. The two great stars which mark the summit and the foot of the cross having nearly the same right ascension, it follows the constellation is almost vertical at the moment when it passes the meridian. This circumstance is known to every nation that lives beyond the tropics, or in the southern hemisphere. It is known at what hour of the night, in different seasons, the southern cross is erect or inclined. It is a timepiece that advances very regularly nearly four minutes a-day, and no other group of stars exhibits to the naked eye an observation of time so easily made. How often have we heard our guides exclaim, in the savannahs of Venezuela, or in the desert extending from Lima to Truxillo, 'Midnight is past, the cross begins to bend!' How often these words reminded us of that affecting scene where Paul and Virginia, seated near the sources of the river of Lataniers, conversed together for the last time; and when the old man, at the sight of the southern cross, warns them that it is time to separate."

is here seen divided into constellations, and the whole galaxy is of so dazzling a whiteness as to make it resemble a pure flame of silvery light thrown across the heavens, turning the atmosphere into a kind of green transparency. Besides this, there are vast masses of stellar nebulæ of infinite diversity and form—oval, oblate, elliptical, as well as of different degrees of density, diffused over the firmament, and discoverable through a common telescope, all novel to an inhabitant of temperate climes, and recalling the exclamation of the Psalmist, "The heavens declare the glory of God, . . . the firmament showeth forth his handy work."

"The stars
Are older scripture, writ by God's own hand,
Scripture authentic, uncorrupt by man." *

An interesting phenomenon sometimes occurs here as in other islands of the West Indies, which was long supposed to be seen only in the eastern hemisphere. A short time before sunrise or sunset, a flush of strong white light, like that of the Aurora Borealis, extends from the horizon a considerable way up the zenith, and so much resembles the dawn, as to prove greatly deceptive to a stranger. As he watches the luminous track, he sees it decrease instead of becoming more vivid, and at length totally disappear, leaving the heavens nearly as dark as previous to its appearance. This is the zodiacal light. The real dawn takes place soon afterwards, but after a considerably longer lapse of time than in northern regions.

The colour of the light varies according to the state of the atmosphere, but it is in general of a pure rose tint. Its extent

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* It is thought by some to be more than poetically true that the stars are "older scripture." The original sphere was, according to some writers, a prediction of the great events of the world immediately succeeding the deluge. Mr. Maurice asserts that the whole of the southern constellations are a commentary on the books of Moses, and decidedly prove their truth. On the ample and recorded tablet of the skies, he says he has discovered Noah, his Altar and Sacrifice; the Raven and the Dove sent forth from the ark; that Ark itself, and the emblem of the Deity who preserved it; Nimrod, the mighty hunter, with the Dogs, pursuing his cruel vocation; and a variety of other objects referred to in the Old Testament scriptures Montgomery has an idea of a similar kind in his Pelican Island:—

"Through the calm sky alone, the ship of heaven
Came sailing from eternity; the dove
On silver pinions, urged its peaceful way;
There at the footstool of Jehovah's throne,
The altar kindled from his presence blazed;
And there all else excelling meekly shone,
The cross, the symbol of redeeming love.
The heavens declared the glory of the Lord,
The firmament displayed his handy work."

from the horizon to its vertex, varies from 45 to 120 degrees. It has been conjectured that this is really a luminous atmosphere of the sun reaching beyond the orbit of Mercury, and that it derives its form—that of a long and narrow ellipse, only the half of which is perceived—from its rapid revolution with the sun on its axis. But the most eminent astronomers differ in opinion concerning it.*

To convey to the reader some idea of the highly electric state of the atmosphere within the tropics at some seasons of the year, and the terrific storms that so often result from this and conjunctive causes in these latitudes, it may be deemed neither irrelevant nor uninteresting to attempt a description of a hurricane experienced by the author at sea, in the immediate vicinity of this island, on a visit to its different ports.

On ascending to the deck of the vessel at an early hour of the morning, after one of those serene and beautiful dawns so often beheld within the tropics, I was struck with the appearance of the sky; there was every indication of rain, thunder, and wind. Conoid and filliform Cirri spread over the south-east hemisphere; these clouds grew bigger and increased fast, forming high in the air, in thin, white trains like flocks of wool; soon a general cloudiness covered the sky, and small black fragments of clouds blew underneath; while in another part of the heavens two currents of cloud were observable.

As the morning advanced there was a haziness in the air which dulled the sun's light, and made that orb whitish and ill-defined. While thus absorbed, the captain, who, without my observing him, had for some time stood near me, said, addressing himself to the mate, "Mr.——, I don't like this state of the atmosphere, nor the look of that sky," pointing to the south-east. "Do you see that fiery streak along the horizon? well, Sir, as the sun gets nearer to that streak there'll be trouble, or I'm no judge of weather."

Meanwhile the sun began to be rapidly over-clouded;

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* It is stated, that one of the results of the late expedition from the United States to Japan, is the discovery that the zodiacal light is a belt extending entirely round the earth, after the manner of Saturn's ring. This supposed discovery has excited considerable interest among astronomers, some of the ablest of whom are said to consider the fact established by the observations taken.—*American Almanac*, 1857.

The light appears part of the year in the morning before sunrise, and part after sunset.

distant peals of thunder were heard, and thick sultry drops of rain began to patter upon the deck. The wind came on gradually, but ominously, and the captain, with a countenance betokening deep anxiety, and with his person encased in his sou-wester, pea-jacket, a pair of high overall, or in nautical phrase, "main-to'-s'l-boots," appeared at his post, shouting in a shrill, half-despairing, fretful tone of voice (though but indistinctly, and only at intervals, heard above the crackling of the cordage and the howling of the sea), his eyes occasionally directed to the quarter from which the storm came hurrying on, "All hands ahoy! turn out, my lads! man the cleulines and buntlines! cleu up and furl the top-gallant-sails, fore and aft! haul in the weather-braces! clap on the rolling tackle! It blows harder; take in your topsails! let go the hall-y'rds and bowlines; square the yards; unroll the reefs! A gale of wind I reckon; brail up the mizen! quick! man the clue garnets! A hurricane as sure as a gun. I thought we should have it here away,—ill luck to us. Bear up the helm a-weather! brace up the foresail; down with the topsails! so,—steady; keep her as she goes; now bear a hand on deck; clap on the main hatch, and batten it well down! Steward! put up the dead-lights, and all hands stand by and keep a sharp look out!"

These, or similar orders were given in quick succession, and were echoed and re-echoed from mouth to mouth, the eyes of the captain in giving them, frequently turning to the quarter from whence the storm was approaching. And now the fell conflict of the elements began—the thunder, lightning, and wind.

The wind was ere long in full march over the sea; the clouds were not sailing, but rushing through the sky in grey, fleece-like racks. The watch turned their backs to the storm and stood mute, as if watching the progress of a power to which they knew no human ingenuity could apply a check. Not a word was heard,—an awful stillness prevailed among all living creatures on board; all were involved in a deep, silent, and impressive gloom. Meanwhile, the twilight failed, and the tempest blackened, narrowing its space, and coming down upon the deep. The lightnings blazed nearer and brighter, and the thunder rolled louder and louder at every return, the electric fluid rendering the face of heaven one moment light as day, and leaving it the next black as night.

The sun had just gone down like a vast round shield of fire. The wind then redoubled its fury, and the rain, taking a hori-

zontal instead of a perpendicular direction, from the force of the wind, fed the gale instead of lulling it; the sea foamed and raged like a boiling cauldron—"deep called unto deep;" it was a tempestuous sea of liquid mountains. The vessel was now groaning, and pitching, and spouting the salt fluid from her planks, while the water curled around her in a mass of snowy foam; yet, being laden with wood, and that in scarcely more than sufficient quantity to serve for ballast, she floated like a cork or a feather upon the bosom of the liquid element.

The helmsman was commanded to luff up to the wind. Sea and sky seemed now commingled, and a flash of lightning that blended them for a time was followed by a peal of thunder so close, that the timbers of the vessel shook with the vibration of the air,—literally quivered from stem to stern. A second hostile meeting of electricity took place immediately above us, and a third, others following in swift and long succession, each more dreadful than the former, in various forms—forked, zigzag, as a globe of fire, or fire in streams; while at intervals a torrent of fire fell perpendicularly from the blackness above, and was instantly followed by an explosion of thunder that seemed to expend itself in a red fierce sheet of flame; until the whole hemisphere appeared one entire mass of fire, and we literally floated alone amid a universal and incessant blaze enveloping the skies.

What a long night of terror ensued! And sunrise brought nothing with it but a clearer sky above head; for in the horizon the aspect was still threatening and lowering, though splendid to behold; clouds were rolled on clouds—glowing hues of mingled light and shade—gold, sapphire, crimson, purple; some clouds in the form of dark and terrible pillars whirling upon their bases, while the blackened ocean curled, the wind tearing off the snowy scalps of the tortured billows, and hurling them high in air. And soon the black clouds advanced on either side against the wind, throwing a dismal darkness over the deep as they advanced. The storm came on, thus stooping from the skies, furious, and as though after the pause, to renew its assaults with greater violence; and the vessel was suffered to drive before the gale, encountering all the fury of the wind and sea, while at every plunge, the bowsprit and forecastle were carried under water.

The steersman was now alone at the helm; the rest, both passengers and crew, having abandoned the deck; reminding

one of the scene described by Homer—of Ulysses during his solitary voyage to the island of Calypso. There he stands,—my thoughts recall the scene at this moment, with all its grand and awful interest,—his tall bronzed figure on the high quarter-deck, enveloped in garments that so completely veil his person, that it loses its identity with earthly forms, and seems a proper inmate of the cloud and of the storm.

There was indeed no standing on deck because of the violence of the wind. I repeatedly attempted to maintain my footing by clinging to some fixture near me, and could scarcely reach the top of the companion-ladder before a part of my dress, though secured by lanyards, was blown off into the sea—an occurrence sufficiently indicative that my person would almost as quickly have followed had I attempted to advance. The roar of the wind was absolutely deafening, and the deck was swept, fore and aft, with the force of a waterspout. The tempest mingled earth and sky. Even the steersman now could no longer brave the fury of the elements, and lashing the helm a-lee, he also sought shelter below; while wave after wave dashing over us, and forcing a part of their bulk through the battened skylight and the widening seams of the deck and hull, rendered our berth anything but agreeable. The wind howled, and whizzed, and piped through the cordage, tearing some of the sails to ribbons; while the masts and bulkheads croaked, and strained, and groaned as if about to snap or break asunder. So awful was our situation felt to be by all, that scarcely a word was heard for hours from stem to stern, except the occasional moanings and irreverent, though not intentionally impious, exclamations of a half-frantic fellow-passenger. The cabin was dark, wet, and comfortless. The water in the hold increased fast; the bowsprit was every moment expected to be carried away; and the mainmast already sprung, to go by the board. All hands were melancholy and oppressed with fear, for death seemed almost inevitable.

The gale lulled during the day, but the sun went down lurid and angry as before, sublimely mantled with gigantic masses of cloud, which were tinged with the glare of the descending luminary, and seemed to be impatiently watching for his departure in order to discharge their pent-up wrath again upon the bosom of the night, while the moaning winds hushed him to repose.

Then the storm renewed its fury, raging fitfully for awhile in alternate lulls and gusts, which succeeded each other, however,

more rapidly every moment, and ended at length in the same tremendous hurricane which had prevailed during the day.

Another night of darkness and danger ensued, which seemed as though it would never be succeeded by morning light, and the horrors of which no language can describe; but this also passed away at length, and the sun once more arose shining in his strength. The clouds, broken and scattered, were chasing one another across the blue firmament, brightening and darkening as they approached or receded from the sun's disc; and even when they crossed it, instead of eclipsing, transmitting his beams through their fleecy forms. At other times they rushed in thick volumes to the centre of the vault above, and formed a canopy of lurid and melancholy effulgence round his orb.

During this day the wind again abated. The elemental tumult had subsided, but not so the commotion of the sea. The wind having raged with so much violence for such a length of time from one quarter, afterwards veered round to the opposite, and shifted, indeed, at intervals, to every point of the compass, until at length it fixed itself steadily in the point from which it first arose. The sea that was now raised was tremendous,—it was as before described, like a boiling cauldron, horrible yet sublime beyond description. At night I saw once more the stars in the deep blue heavens, and the cold beams of the newly-risen moon dancing in a long flickering wake of silver light on the troubled, ever-heaving bosom of the ocean, while the melancholy murmur of the surf, booming on the gentle night wind, seemed as if breaking on some near unknown shore.

Never before did I understand the full meaning of the words of Holy Writ, "He maketh the deep to boil as a pot." It truly seethed and foamed while it ran mountains high There was still no guiding the vessel; she scudded before the wind under bare poles. The steersman, however, resumed his post at the helm; and the captain, literally terrified, held on the taffrail beside him.

On stealing at intervals from my berth, into which I had thrown myself during the storm, passing night and day with my clothes on, and which with the whole cabin had been enveloped in almost total darkness, I was so astounded at the magnificence of the scene that met my gaze, that I involuntarily gave expression to a loud exclamation, and I believe that neither pen of poet nor pencil of the ablest painter could describe it with anything

like the accuracy of truth. I have seen Poussin's picture of the "Deluge," with many another representations on canvass of a storm at sea, and I have read the glowing descriptions which poetry has drawn of the "welterings of the mighty deep," but all came infinitely short of the reality as now beheld.

There was much justice in the words of Lord Byron, though sarcastically expressed, when he recommended to some of his brother poets a trip across the Atlantic in order to give them some new sensations.

There was now to be seen no flying spray topping the furious waves, but a vast expanse of majestic rolling sea, each billow massive, broad, and unbroken as a mountain-side, threatening to engulf us at every surge, and still foaming, raging. The captain, with a countenance full of anxiety if not of anger, shouted at intervals to the man at the helm, "Look out for that sea! mind your starboard helm! ease her, man, ease her!"

She lurched,—down came the sea upon the deck in a full broadside, pouring a deluge of water down the cabin stairs, dashing myself headlong from the companion-ladder, and hurling every loose spar and unfixed thing overboard. It seemed as though the vessel were engulfed, and as if all was over for ever; but the sea passed over the tidy bark, and up again she rose on the crest of the waves and floated on them like a feather or a sea-gull, and our ears were again saluted with the now familiar jumble and rattling of hencoops, crockery ware, trunks, and tin cans. I at length ventured on deck, determining there to remain, and was lashed in a recumbent posture (or "moored," as the rough sailor said who thus secured me to the companion on the half-deck or poop), as there was still no standing or even keeping one's position a moment on foot.

The sea was still dreadfully convulsed, but no longer boiling and foaming; yet it appeared, if possible, even more magnificent than before, the waves coming on in larger reaches, more mountainous, or leaving immense hollows or troughs, that seemed nearly half a mile in extent. One mountain succeeding another came on continuously, as if Neptune were gathering up the whole fathomless ocean from its foundations into a long, heavy, rolling swell, and concentrating all his energy in one vast effort to overwhelm us. Sometimes we were half-buried by the waves breaking over our side, at others by their sweeping clear over us, the vessel apparently diving as if perpendicularly,

and with the velocity of an avalanche, into the yawning abyss, throwing her keel high out above, or else falling on her beam ends, or dropping astern, yet always rising again like a sea-bird familiarly sporting with its native element.

At this juncture we hove to under a balanced main-sail,—that is, one sail spread to keep the vessel more steady, and to prevent her from rolling violently, by pressing her side down to the water, as well as to turn her head towards the source of the wind, so that the shock of the sea might fall more obliquely on her planks than when she laid along the trough of the sea, or in the interval between two waves. While in this situation the helm was fastened to leeward.

At length the sea became calm, the sky cloudless, the sun shone forth once more, in all his former lustre; our broad banner, the mainsail, was once more unfurled; our shattered masts, as far as possible, repaired; the canvass and rigging collected, patched, and spliced; all hands worked away at the pumps; and nature once more rendered her aid to our transit, for we were driving on with a steady breeze, and beneath a serene and brilliant sky; reminded of the tempest only, by the last mutterings of the thunder upon the verge of the remote horizon. The sun set that evening in cloudless majesty, the heavens above him beaming with soft radiance as he gradually declined into the bosom of the glowing western waters; then the pale moon soon rising in a similarly broad, expansive form, silvered over with her beams the surface of the placid deep, and all nature seemed hushed to repose.

The appearance of the environs of Havanna and of the island altogether—although inferior, in the opinion of many, to Jamaica—is most picturesque and beautiful; gay, beyond the power of language to express, in verdure and floral ornaments, splendid forests, highly cultivated plains, and rich savannahs.

"O gorgeous land!
Where giant mountains as thy guardians stand,
Lifting their sunlit heads to yonder sky,
Where fairy clouds in softest beauty lie.
Land of delight! than which the rolling sun
A fairer, lovelier scene ne'er shines upon,—
Ne'er flings his beams to welcome brighter flowers
Than scent with fragrance all thy summer bowers."

The trees, which everywhere adorn the lower hills, crowd in luxuriant confusion, variegated and bespangled with all the

beauties of colour which the wealth of nature alone can exhibit, —often canopied with fantastic wreaths of flowering foliage, as may be said of the sweeping mimosa, the arbutus, and the agave; while the cocoa-nut, the palma royal, the stately cedula, and a thousand other beautiful trees and shrubs, make endless variety. These forests have for their crowning glory those giants of the vegetable kingdom nowhere to be seen but in tropical regions, and exhibit vast, unexplored, exhaustless, and leafy solitudes, covering with a glowing splendour of colour vast ranges of mountains, whose summits mingle with the clouds.

As within the tropics are revealed the luminous worlds which spangle the firmament from pole to pole, so also all the vegetable forms of the earth are here found, including more especially the most beautiful productions of nature—palms, tree ferns, bananas, arborescent grasses, and delicately-feathered mimosas, of which the puny plants that represent them in Europe, pent up in hot-houses, convey but a faint idea.

It is not only that beneath the glowing rays of a tropical sun the noblest forms of vegetation are developed, but here it is that they seem alone to flourish. In the cold north the bark of trees is covered only with dry lichens and mosses, while beneath the tropics the cymbedium and the fragrant vanilla adorn the trunks of the anacardias and the gigantic fig-tree; and the beautiful octoblepharum album invests the stems of the cocoa-nut and other palms. Mosses, though generally supposed to find appropriate conditions only where constant humidity and intense severity of temperature are combined, appear to have a wider geographical distribution than any family of higher organisation. The fresh green of the pothus leaves, and of the dracontias, contrasts with the many-coloured blossoms of the numerous orchids, climbing bauhinias, passion flowers,* bimonias, and golden flowered

* The passion-flower was discovered in the Brazils, and its wonders were soon proclaimed to christian kingdoms, as representing the Passion of our Lord, whence its present name. The leaves were said exactly to resemble the *spear* that pierced our Saviour's side; the tendrills, the *cords* that bound his hands, or the *whips* that scourged him; the ten petals, the *Apostles*, Judas having betrayed, and Peter deserted; the pillar in the centre, was the *cross* or *tree*; the stamina, the *hammers*; the styles, the *nails*; the inner circle about the centre pillar, the *crown of thorns*; the radiance, the *glory*; the white in the flower, the emblem of *purity*; and the blue, the type of *heaven*. On one of the species of the passion-flower, even drops of blood were seen upon the *cross* or *tree*. The flower was three days open and then disappeared, denoting the *resurrection*. At last this wondrous flower was brought from the Brazils to Europe, and became a denizen of our gardens in the year 1699. It is abundant in Cuba.

banisterias, which encircle every tree of the forest. The wild fig is another curious parasite, but destitute of flower; it fixes its roots a hundred feet high in the forks or branches of the ceiba, and grows downwards, gradually strangling its patron and overgrowing his decaying corpse, converting him into his own monument; there are also several species of arum, which descend no less elegantly from the mighty forest trees, but turn their extreme ends upwards when almost touching the ground.

Delicate blossoms unfold themselves from the root of the theobroma, and from the thick rough bark of the crescentia and gustavia. Amid the luxuriant abundance of flowers and foliage, and amid this tangled web of creeping plants, it is often difficult for the naturalist to recognize the stems to which the various leaves and flowers belong. A single tree adorned with paullinias, bignonias, and dendrobias, forms a group of plants, which, separated from each other, would cover a very considerable space of ground.

But the impenetrability of tropical forests is not exclusively occasioned by the interlaced climbing or creeping plants, or the abundant cryptogamic flora, as all these often constitute but a small portion of the underwood. The chief obstacles to the traveller are the shrub-like plants which fill up every space between the trees, because here all vegetable forms have a tendency to become aborescent.

Social plants (*plantæ sociales*), which give such uniformity to European vegetation, are almost wholly unknown in the equatorial regions. The excessive variety of their rich sylvan flora, renders it in vain to ask of what the primeval forests consist. Numberless families of plants are here crowded together, and even in small places, plants of the same species are rarely associated. Every day, and with every change of place, new forms present themselves to the traveller's attention.

Trees almost twice as high as the English oak, here bloom with flowers, as large as the most splendid of our lilies. Colossal trees and monstrous ferns, closely allied, as would seem, to the specimens lately exhumed by the geologist from the buried ruins of a former world, meet the eye in every direction. In short, no pen can convey the least idea of the wonderful luxuriance which in the tropics charms the eye at every step. The rankest vegetation flourishes around.

There is a richness of colour also, and fatness of substance in the foliage of every tree and shrub which are not seen in

the temperate or northern regions. They are also larger, more graceful, more beautiful, more poetically picturesque. The stately palm, with its smooth white stem glittering in the sunbeams like a column of burnished silver; the ceiba, shooting aloft a strong and softly undulating stem, to a height exceeding that of the palm, spreading its vast sinuous arms beyond the circuit of a hundred yards, and its roots to twice that distance. This latter fact, it may be said in passing, affords conclusive evidence against the now exploded theory of botanists, that the roots of trees merely extend to the limits of the branches, to receive the nourishment imparted from the dew and rain which drop from them; the waving bamboo (*arundo maxima*), a giant grass, growing in clumps, and nodding in the gentle breeze, with the graceful appearance of a gigantic ostrich plume; groups of the mango, with its deep and dark foliage defying the sun's rays, its fruits hanging in long racemes, several upon a stalk, in form like colossal almonds,—the guava, growing at its feet like an infant of another family; the mammél, or "abricot de St. Domingue," with its rich green fruit hanging in clusters, and a foliage rivalling the mango; together with the mamey colerado, and mamey Santa Domingo, and Sapota, covered with dark green leaves and russet fruit; the banana, called in tropical flora, "*musa paradaisica;*" the dark feathery tamarind; the light and graceful indigo; the slow-growing sago, with its palmy and feathery leaves spreading like a rampart over its precious root; the boundless fields of sugar-cane; acres of the luscious pine apple; groves of banana and plantain; forests of cedar and mahogany; flowers of every shade; and every jungle netted over with the creeping convolvuli of all forms and tints; these, and a thousand others, their names unknown, are continually bursting on the eye with equal profusion and variety, bearing lovely testimony to the richness of the soil and the genial warmth of the climate. Some of the heights in the interior are covered with a great number of tall and extraordinary plants, resembling lofty green candelabra, with many pairs of arms; while the forests are beautifully ornamented with, and chiefly composed of, the varieties of juvia, rubiaceæ, myrtles, leguminosæ, and terebintaceæ. Some of these forest patriarchs, mossed with age, encircled with creepers, or studded with parasites (bromelacious and other plants), like stars, in all parts of trunk and branch, seem coeval with Old Time, and supply such suggestions of antiquity as the castelled ruins inspire in Europe.

A voyager from Europe, an admirer of natural scenery, on approaching the shores of Cuba, and for the first time in his life gazing on a West Indian landscape, would almost imagine it but lately sprung forth from the hand of the Almighty, and prepared for the abode of some happy beings who owed their existence to special divine favour; or fancy might deem it "a spot for angels to alight upon—a kind of resting-place between heaven and earth." It was to this lovely island Columbus referred in his first communication to his royal patrons Ferdinand and Isabella. "The loveliness of this new land," says he, "is like that of Campina de Cordoba. The trees are all covered with ever-verdant foliage, and perpetually laden with fruits and flowers. The plants on the ground are tall and full of blossoms. The breezes are like those of April in Castillo. The nightingales sing more sweetly than I can describe. . . . Once I came into a deeply enclosed harbour, and saw high mountains which no human eye had ever seen before, from which the lovely waters (*cindas aguas*) streamed down. The mountain was covered with firs, pines, and other trees of very various forms, and adorned with various flowers. Ascending the river, which poured itself into the bay, I was astonished at the cool shade, the crystal clear water, and the number of singing birds. It seems to me as if I could never quit a spot so delightful,—as if a thousand tongues would fail to describe it,—as if the spell-bound hand would refuse to write."

Cuba is considered even more fertile than any of the other islands, with the only exception, probably, of Trinadad. Sugar-cane and tobacco being the staple productions, large establishments for the growth and manufacture of these articles are scattered over the greater part of the island, forming some of the most beautiful and picturesque features in the landscape.

The cultivated portion is not supposed to exceed one-seventieth of the uncultivated parts, the latter of which contain large prairies or savannas, in which it is estimated that upwards of a million and a half of cattle are reared and pastured; but the greater portion is overrun with large forest trees, some of which supply excellent timber for all useful and ornamental purposes.

Gardens in Cuba are common and extensive, but exhibit, with some exceptions, a mixture of fruit trees, vegetables, and corn patches, disposed without taste or arrangement, yet combining many pleasing elements of effect. Some of them in the

country are covered with a gorgeous carpeting of heliotropes, verbenas, and scarlet salvias. Occasionally there is attached to these rural homesteads a fruit and flower garden, ornamented with groves of the lofty and graceful palta, or with avocado pear, orange, lime, lemon, and citron trees, and the delicious granidillo, or fruit of the passion flower, which hangs over the boughs in rich profusion. In the midst of this garden is perhaps a *jet-d'eau*, the play of whose waters gives an inexpressible charm of melody and freshness.

The gay luxuriant views that break upon the traveller as he winds among the hills appear like scenes of fairy enchantment, or those represented in the raptured visions of the poets. As he advances, the scenery is always diversified and new, till at length, between the receding heights, the eye catches a glimpse of the distant waters of the ocean fading into the blue and cloudless horizon.

The sacred writers often borrow images of abundance, beauty, and majesty from the rich productions and magnificent scenery of the lofty chain which formed the northern boundary of the Holy Land. In the language of oriental metaphor, "Lebanon bathes his foot in oil,—he is clothed with silk,—his arms are laden with fruit,—and his head of snow, is wreathed with a diadem of forests." To Cuba, and to other islands of the Caribbean Sea, these descriptions will almost equally apply.

Much of the coast of Cuba is of coral formation; and the coral tower scarcely lifts its head above the waters before it seems a basket of waving flowers. The most beautiful algæ and corals, together with the most exquisitely tinted shells and flower-like weeds, are gathered on the sea-beach.

The domestic animals are the same as in Europe and the British West Indies; whilst many of the wild species, indigenous to the islands, still exist. The forests abound with wild cattle and swine, which originated in their importation by the early settlers; while very little difference exists between the inferior quadrupeds and those of the other Antilles. Among the birds existing here which are not found in the other islands are the canary and the linnet. The beautiful flamingo abounds on the coasts, as also the parroquet. The latter, when disturbed in their haunts, spring up suddenly in hundreds, and in their flight flash in the sun like a shower of emeralds. Of all the insect tribes, the butterflies of Cuba are the most beautiful. The most splendid is the *unaria*—of a dark green colour, with

a gloss like velvet. Alligators and crocodiles infest the mangrove swamps; and other reptiles are numerous. Fresh fish are found in the blue and gleaming waters in great abundance, in rare varieties, and with all the hues of the prism;—the colours are also of an indescribable clearness and distinctness—blue, yellow, red, gold-tinted, and edged with gold and violet. In some animals, as in the humming-bird, all these colours seem combined.

No rivers of any magnitude or extent are found; but a considerable number of small streams, computed at two hundred, issue from the mountains, watering the island on its northern and southern sides. In some of these rivers or brooks, clear as crystal, rushing from the mountains to the sea, are seen by the traveller, as he passes into the country, numbers of black women washing clothes. Sometimes many are grouped together with the most picturesque effect; some standing in the middle of the stream beating their linen upon the stones; others spreading them on the sunny bank; the whole presenting a scene that would deeply interest either a poet or a painter.

Salt ponds and springs of mineral water are also found in Cuba. One of the springs contains 0.04 of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, 10.5 of sulphate of lime, 1.0 of hydrochlorate of magnesia, and one quarter of carbonate of magnesia,—properties which, perhaps, it is almost superfluous to say, render it of peculiar efficacy in cases of scrofula and other cutaneous diseases.

Although this island may be deficient of water, and of some other valuable products, it has been considered richer than any of the others in mineral productions.

Mines abounding in copper are found, which long supplied the other Spanish colonies with their utensils, and have for some years enriched the European market. Nor is loadstone unknown. Green rock crystal abounds in the Isle of Pines. Gold is not unfrequent in the rivers. The hills in the neighbourhood of Havanna are of primitive formation, containing pyrites—gold, copper, and iron. Some veins of chalcedony have been discovered among them in alluvial lands; as also coal, marbles of various kinds, serpentine quartz, and mineral bitumen. Coal is found in the neighbourhood of Havanna, as well as in other parts of the island; and with the produce of Guanabacoa, in its immediate vicinity, steamships have always been supplied. It is pronounced by the Spanish engineers to be excellent in quality—superior to the best English. Analysis

shows this coal to consist of the following parts:—Carbon, 71.74; oxygen, 6.32; hydrogen, 8.44; ashes, 13.50—100.00. The railroad from the port to the mine is in rapid progress towards completion. As the bed is believed to be very extensive, the enterprising proprietors anticipate handsome profits on their outlay whenever the West India steamers shall regularly call at Havanna for a supply of fuel. Sienite exists in large quantities in different parts of the island; and in the west, rocks of secondary formation are common, containing various ores as well as organic remains.

On all the coasts of Cuba, but principally on the northern, are found immense deposits of salt. Only a few months since a rich mine of lead and silver was discovered, which promises a rich reward to the proprietors. Sulphur, granite, clay, flint, and crystal abound in some districts.

The vegetable soil of the island is considered to rest almost universally on one great mass of calcareous rock, of a porous and unequal character. Comparatively little, however, is known of the geological and mineralogical structure of the island, owing to the thickness of the forests and the ruggedness of the mountains; while it is a remarkable contrast which this island presents to Jamaica, that limestone is said to be uncommon, as also stony substances or earthy concretions in general, of any magnitude.

In approaching Havanna from the sea, a chain of undulating mountains runs from east to west, until lost in either horizon. To the right are two mountains at some distance from each other, apparently detatched from the grand ridge, leaving between them a kind of concave shore of bright and sparkling sand. Declining from the mountains eastward, the land is comparatively low, and thickly covered with tall and stately looking trees. On either hand, as it approaches the harbour, the land is again elevated, rising in a gentle acclivity from the sea, and covered with an ever-verdant carpet of grass, scarcely equalled by the finest English lawn.

Nearly on the summit of two hills, of gently sloping declivities, at unequal distances from the town, are two large forts,—Fort Cabanas and Fort Principe,—leaving in their rear, to the right and left, a landscape picturesquely studded with neat villas, surrounded by gardens or green spots produced by artificial irrigation, sometimes smiling with all the charms of vegetation, amidst shrubs and flowers of mingled colours, at

others embosomed in clumps of orange, cocoa-nut, palma royal, and other trees of diversified foliage and height. Directly before you is the town,—of imposing aspect and extensive dimensions; adorned with trees of attractive forms, and buildings of respectable architecture. Above the whole several churches rear their taper spires or rugged turrets, reflecting the light of the sun, and casting long shadows on the neighbouring streets.

The whole landscape, including the spacious back-ground, adorned with estates and villas, pens and mountain settlements, and the shining shore, with its numerous white houses enclosed in thickets of orange and cedar trees, aloes, and palmettos, presents as fine a subject for a picture as could be desired by the ablest artist. Every element of nature contributes to the joint effect—infinite affluence reigns everywhere.

And how enchanting the scene that presents itself from the harbour! On one side stands the city of Havanna; on the other, the town of Regla. The latter is ornamented by some large public buildings and a church. The church appears from some points, as though situated on the brow of an inclining eminence. The shore, on either side, is skirted with several buildings that belong to the naval or other public departments. The whole town seems to stand on rising ground; and the church, situated on the part of the acclivity at a little distance from the basin, is surrounded by the richest verdure. Sometimes you see it as through a green and gently sloping vista reaching to the water's edge, and seeming as if cut through houses and woods, and originally intended to form a peculiar feature of the landscape.

When the eyes of the writer, now some years since, first looked upon the scene, it was the last hour of that day's sun which was shedding his level rays on the beautiful shore; they had fallen upon the tall spire of the church as it lifted itself up above the high trees which embosomed the dwellings, and were pouring in a stream of soft and mellowed radiance upon the gothic windows, at the same time tremulously floating through the verdant branches of the woody enclosure in all the magic glories of massive light and shade. The purple blue and glowing depth of shadow that we read of in an Alpine prospect had already settled upon the distant mountains. The clouds blushed with a thousand rich and varied splendours. The waters were like a polished mirror, dark, and smooth, and beautiful,—melting away, as it were, in the reflected light of earth and sky.

A distant mist slowly crept in one direction along the horizon, forming a striking contrast to the brilliancy above it, yet apparently covered with prismatic colours. I would compare the entire scene, in some respects at least, to the Temple Groves so celebrated in ancient story; or to that Vale of Thessaly, where all is beauty to the eye and fragrance to the sense.

But the sublimest and most beautiful features of this landscape acquired yet greater sublimity and interest from the reflection that it had been called forth from nothing by the hand of Almighty power! This thought at once filled the mind with the sentiment uttered by the immortal Milton, with a thrill of holy aspiration and with adoring rapture overflowing in gratitude and admiration,—

> "These are thy glorious works, Parent of good,
> Almighty, Thine this universal frame,
> Thus wondrous fair; Thyself how wondrous then!"

So the poet sang, and how I longed for his heaven-born gifts while I gazed upon this scene! But in tropical regions there are few poets. Man here, it is said, lives in a poetry realised, —he breathes the warmest air,—he gazes upon the most glowing light,—the earth around him is gorgeously attired in its most magnificent flowers,—birds of the brightest hues flit bodily before his eyes,—and the genius of poetry languishes, because the imagination can add but little to the beautiful where nature has already been so lavish.

The valleys in the distance, covered with sugar-canes and fruit trees, add their charms to the landscape,—the latter producing an abundance and variety of fruits pleasing to the palate as well as grateful to the eye.

> "The soil untilled
> Pours forth spontaneous and abundant harvests;
> The forests cast their fruits in husk or rind,
> Yielding sweet kernels, or delicious pulp,
> Smooth oil, cool milk, and unfermented wine,
> In rich and exquisite variety."

The city and suburbs of Havanna, altogether, contain nine parish churches, six others connected with military orders, five chapels or hermitages, eleven convents, two colleges, a botanical garden, an anatomical museum with lecture rooms, an academy of painting, a school of navigation, and several ordinary schools for both sexes, although chiefly, if not entirely, for children of the white inhabitants.

The principal objects of attraction to a transitory visitor, are the Cathedral, the Church of San Domingo, the Vice-regal Palace, the Square, Columbus's Chapel, the Admiralty, Arsenal, Post Office, the Alumedas, the Royal Tobacco Manufactory, the Convent in honour of the Black Virgin, and the Plaza de Toros for the bull fights, the two latter situated at Regla.

The Cathedral is supposed by some to have been coeval with the foundation of the city by Velasquez, but by others to have been founded by the Jesuits about a century since, and only on their banishment from the island to have been converted into a cathedral. It exhibits some magnificence in its general outline, and an elegance in its statuary and paintings far exceeding what might have been anticipated; indeed, it displays a rare and odd combination of gothic grandeur and ceremonial frippery. I think it must be unique in its architecture. Ovid, in describing the Palace of the Sun, informs us that the workmanship exceeded the materials, but it is not so in relation to the cathedral of Havanna; here the materials are good and elegant, but the want of taste and genius in the architect is strikingly contrasted.

There is an air of grandeur about some parts of the interior of the building, with which other parts are not in unison. Indeed, no architectural rule whatever appears to have been observed either as to its interior or exterior. The buiding is a mixtur of Gothic, Mexican, African, and Moresque; a description which applies, more or less, to the other public buildings of the city, none of them certainly exhibiting in form or construction much of the genius of a Palladio.

It is ornamented with several pictures of superior merit, and some mosaics; the altar is adorned with gold and silver ornaments, and a few fine marble monuments, surmounted by a statue of the Virgin. On the right of the latter an urn, containing the remains of Columbus, is inclosed in the wall, behind a fine white marble tablet bearing the bust in "basso relievo" of the Great Discoverer, of the size of life, under which is the following inscription:—

> "O restos é Imagen del grande Colon,
> Mil signòs durad guardados in la urna,
> Y'en la remembrancia de neustra a nacion."

Thus translated,—

> "Oh, remains and image of the great Columbus,
> For a thousand ages continue preserved in this urn,
> And in the remembrance of our nation."

Columbus died at Valadolid, in old Spain, on the 20th of May, 1566, aged 70. His remains, together with the chains with which he was loaded at Hispaniola, by Francis de Bovadilla, were deposited in a brass coffin, and buried in the Carthusian Convent of Santa Maria de las Cuenas, at Seville in Andalusia. From thence, in accordance with an order contained in his will, he was removed to the cathedral of Santa Domingo, in Hispaniola, then the principal city of Spanish origin in the New World. Subsequently, in 1796, when the southern part of this last named island was ceded to the French, his descendants directed the coffin with its contents to be removed to Havanna. Arrived at this city,—the capital of that island which was the first of his discoveries, and now almost the last of the splendid possessions which he and his descendants secured to Spain,—his remains with their appendages, appear first to have been deposited on the site now occupied by the chapel that bears his name, and finally transferred to the cathedral where they now repose.

Opposite to the tomb of Columbus, there is a small but beautiful painting, probably by Murillo, and said to represent the pope and cardinal celebrating mass previous to the expedition of Columbus. One of the pictures represents the spirits in purgatory; above the flames float the Madonna and Child glancing down with compassionate eyes. Some of the souls becoming aware of them are captivated by their beauty, and whilst they gaze upon them with involuntary prayer, they are miraculously raised out of the flames. Another represents the Virgin standing upon the globe, her eyes lifted to heaven and her feet resting upon a serpent, which glides away over the earth.

The Church of St. Domingo is the most magnificent in Havanna, but that of San Francisco the most characterised by a correct architectural taste.

The Governor's Palace is a large square structure, in the lower part of which are several public offices, the gaol for prisoners, and the prisons of the Inquisition.

The Square is formed partly by the house of the Governor and the residences of the Intendante and the Great Admiral—the three dignitaries of the island thus occupying three sides of the square; some public offices, Columbus's chapel, and a row of private houses, one of which is an English and American hotel, called the "Mansion House," complete the sides, leaving

a garden in the centre, which abounds in choice plants and flowers, and is intersected by walks. This garden is wholly open to the public.

Amidst the mass of beautiful flowers and shrubs which here attracted my attention were the red and white camellias; the pomme rosa tree, most beautiful and of exquisite fragrance; the beautiful *lacrymos cupido* or cupid's tears; but these tears are not the tears of sorrow, they are rather glowing tears gushing from the fountains of an overflowing blissful heart—or they are wept by nature and winged lovers, for the humming birds pay daily court to them.

Although this beautiful oasis, in the midst of the sultry city, is uninclosed, and thus entirely exposed to all classes of the inhabitants; yet so different are the people in their habits and manners to those of England, that these delicate plants from year to year receive no injury beyond what the changes of the weather produce. Not a tree is barked, nor a plant or flower in any way injured. The trees and shrubs are of great vegetable and floral magnificence, infinitely more varied than in Europe. Numbers of them are such as are trained and nursed in the hothouses of Europe, and but few of them have been introduced into the conservatories of France and England.

Columbus's Chapel, called "El Templetro," erected and named in honour of that great navigator, has something of simplicity and symmetry about it that is attractive, but it is by no means on a scale of magnificence commensurate with the fame of that illustrious man. This is in some measure, however, atoned for by its historical associations and deep moral lessons.

It was built by Don Dionysius Vives, an obelisk having been previously erected on the spot by governor Don Francisco Cagigal, soon after the foundation of the city,—viz., in the year 1515, when it was inaugurated by the cognomen of St. Christopher, and grand mass was celebrated in order to commemorate the landing of Columbus. The ceremony took place beneath the branches of a gigantic silk-cotton tree (Bombay ceiba), at the foot of which the ashes of Columbus were deposited, prior to their being removed to the cathedral, where, as previously noticed, they now repose. Arate informs us that this enormous tree was in full bloom in 1755, which led him to conclude that it must have been 400 years old at that period. At the close of

that year, however, this vegetable Methuselah showed symptoms of approaching decay, so that the government gave orders to have it removed, and the monument was erected in its place which was eventually superseded by the present temple.

This was the very spot where the *Salve Regina* and other vesper hymns were chaunted by the first conquerors of the island; the very ground then skirted by the beautiful groves that bordered the lovely shores. Here perhaps stood Columbus when he first planted the royal standard of Spain in this lovely island of the New World; here his followers prostrated themselves and embraced their mother earth; here the wonder-stricken native chief endeavoured to propitiate the invaders by asserting his belief of a God and of a future state. How interesting yet how solemn the reflection! Who could forbear, on such a spot, and amid such associations, to look with interest upon the scene, or to brand with infamy the pompous names of conquest and enlarged dominion? And what feelings but those of indignation and sorrow can any friend of his species indulge, who traverses for the first time the fields where he is assured the feet at least of the haughty Velasquez, Las Casas, and Cortez, if not those of Columbus, have trodden, and, tracing in the same dust the footsteps of Narvaez, and the whole herd of barbarous conquerors, recollects, amidst the splendid palaces that now rise around him, the groans and blood of the unoffending Indians?

There are two promenades;—one in the suburbs of the town, called the Plaza de Tacon, or the promenade "el Passeo de Isabella Secunda," which extends upwards of three English miles, between broad avenues of palm and other tropical trees, beds of flowers, marble statues, and fountains, and which is the finest promenade that can be imagined; the other is the Plaza des Armes. In the vicinity of the former is the governor's villa, with its gardens laid out in the style of those of Versailles, and presenting beautifully picturesque effects. The latter, which is near the governor's palace, is the more favourite resort, being more easy of access, and rendered more attractive by the military band that plays from eight to nine o'clock on certain evenings of the week. The centre of the latter also is ornamented with four small fountains, flanked by waving palm trees, and adorned with a statue of Ferdinand VII., which, it must be stated, to the discredit of the Cubans, is kept in good preservation, whilst the monument of the great discoverer is

allowed to crumble into dust, and the tombstone of Velasquez, the founder of the city, is said to form the steps that lead to an humble dwelling in an obscure street of the city of St. Jago! *Sic transit gloria mundi.*

There is besides an esplanade or lofty terrace at some distance from the city, called "La Cortine de Valdez," raised along the harbour on the opposite side of the Morro. This promenade is short, but commands a most beautiful view of the environs of the city.

These promenades are much resorted to by the Cuban fair on fine evenings, who, on such occasions, are dressed with much taste and elegance; the costumes being similar to those of the Prado, the mirror of Madrid, and the mantilla being worn in all its national varieties. The surrounding scenery and the climate are well calculated to dispose the spectator to view them with an indolent complacency; for the balmy richness of the evenings, the gorgeous magnificence of the sunsets, and the breezes perfumed with orange scent, all enhance the pleasure; while an animating succession of carriages and crowds of gay pedestrians give a gentle excitement to the gazer's mind.

The cigar manufactory, and other public buildings, including the custom house (la aduana), which is a large sky-blue structure, surmounted by a tower, surrounded by iron railings, and guarded at each entrance by mustacioed sentries, looking suspicious and fierce at every stranger, merit no particular description.

And the Blue Convent at Regla, is only deserving of notice from the fact of its being devoted to the black Virgin Mary, in whose special honour fetes are celebrated there. The scene is thus described by a recent traveller, who represents himself to have witnessed the ceremony of a public festival at Regla:—

"The representative of this sable virgin sits on a throne above a lofty altar, holding an infant Jesus in her hands; a formidable line of followers supports the sable queen, all supposed to be angels; some in short tunics, with helmets and feathers, others decorated with plumes and flowers; the whole gorgeously covered with tinfoil, copper hieroglyphics, and plated ornaments, such as are seen on a coffin. Near the centre of the church, is a figure larger than life of our Saviour on the cross, in a flaxen wig with flowing curls, the blood oozing from the wounds in his hands, feet, and side; while below stands the virgin of a white complexion, a fat-faced, highly-rouged,

portly figure, with auburn tresses, perfumed and dressed in the last mode; her clothing, a fashionable blue embroidered gown, lace mantilla, white satin shoes, and in her hand the characteristic fan. Large wax tears stand out in bold relief under her eyes, and to represent the pain she is enduring, a dagger appears in her left side, the hilt projecting from under the breast!"

The Plaza del Toros is a circular building, open-roofed, with successive tiers of seats, after the manner of the Roman amphitheatre, surrounding the arena, in which the bull contests are carried on, and capable of holding about 15,000 spectators. This is the great seminary in which the Cubans from their early youth imbibe their lessons of insensibility and cruelty; the rendezvous (as was said of that last and noblest monument of Roman grandeur and Roman crimes—the Colosseum) whither the people resorted to receive the finishing touch of degradation to their national character, and to conceal their fallen spirit under the mask of a brutal ferocity, by witnessing spectacles which for seven centuries corrupted and brutalized the Roman manners. The same low heathenish pastimes, added to her wanton wicked traffic in human flesh and blood, are now completing the degradation of Spain, and expose her whole population, from the monarch to his distant colonial subjects, to the opprobrium and pity of the entire civilized world.

From the brief account here given of Cuba and of its principal towns, the reader will gather abundant reasons for concluding that neither the island nor its population are in such a prosperous condition as ought to belong to a people and a soil so signally favoured of Heaven. The causes of this are also manifest enough. Ruled by an effeminate, demoralized, and altogether degenerate race; reared under the blighting influence of slavery (an influence as disastrous, morally, to the slaveholding as to the enslaved); and having no religious or educational stimulus but such as an effete church and a depraved and ignorant priesthood can supply, it is impossible that Cuban society should be either vigorous in its habits or sound in its moral principles. It has, and *must* have, under present circumstances, all the marks of a community in a state of decay. Labour is neglected; commerce is languidly carried on; education is despised; literature can hardly be said to exist; the manners and customs most in vogue are decidedly vicious; the

arts are cultivated by few, and such specimens of art as we have noticed prove how wretchedly depraved is the public taste; the amusements most delighted in are barbarous and cruel; the whole white population are given up to an indolent luxuriousness that renders them both ignorant and oppressive; and it cannot be wondered at if the poor untaught coloured people follow as nearly as they can in the wake of their oppressors, at least in abandoning themselves at all possible opportunities to the lowest animal enjoyments. Thus the most genial of climates and the most fertile of soils are allowed by common consent to lie comparatively waste.

That Cuba should be looked upon with eyes of longing desire by the United States* will not be wondered at by those who have attentively considered the foregoing statements. In the hands of a less imbecile government she would prove a priceless treasure. Her ports so favourably situated, and possessed of such natural capabilities for carrying on an extensive commerce; her mineral stores, already discovered to be rich, and only waiting for more industrious and diligent explorers to yield a tenfold product; above all, her climate and her soil, to which her wonderful fertility is due, and which, like her mines, if well improved, would bring unparalleled harvests of choice and valuable fruits;—all these are special advantages which make one lament that an indolent, luxurious, and immoral race should exclusively possess them. And yet, until the great question of Slavery shall be settled, one would dread to see this beautiful and wealthy island in the hands of the United States. Let us hope that by pursuing towards our American brethren a conciliatory and unselfish policy we shall aid in the solution of this momentous question; and facilitate not merely the growth of her material greatness, but her advance to that state of moral excellence that will render her a blessing to the world.

For we cannot hide from ourselves the fact that the United States must ultimately become a blessing or a curse to all the nations of the earth. With a rapidity far beyond all historical precedent she has been developing her resources and multiplying her population for half a century. And yet her course is but just begun. In another fifty years she will be almost indubitably the most powerful government on earth. There seems to be no limit to her growth, and no possible hindrance

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* See Appendix.

to her taking this prominent and leading position except that of internal dissensions. And with her strong commercial propensities, and her numerous fleets of ships passing rapidly to and fro on every sea, it is impossible—whatever her statesmen may say for the present of her being content with the power she has at home—but that all nations should eventually feel her influence for evil or for good.

Nor need Great Britain be jealous or envious at the prospect. The triumphs of the United States are essentially her own. And this, not merely because her own blood flows in the veins of her transatlantic children, and whatever glories they achieve they must in honesty attribute to the vigour they derived from her; but, chiefly, because the lofty aims for which Britain has been distinguished from the other peoples of the Eastern world are cherished with a youthful energy and earnestness by the best portion of her Western progeny. There is no great philanthropic idea, no noble moral aspirations which has ever animated the hearts of the English, which has not been eagerly adopted in the Northern and Eastern States. And, paralysing and demoralising as the present influence of Slavery is, there cannot be a doubt that the States will ultimately shake off this loathsome and deadly incubus. From that moment they start afresh, and who shall foretell their mighty destiny? They possess the same literature, the same customs, the same moral qualities and ideas, above all the same religion as the parent state; and we have a right, therefore, to expect that whatever Great Britain has already done to instruct and humanize mankind, and to raise the nations by her christian teaching, and (let it be said, in spite of its many and acknowledged defects) by her christian example too, the United States will be able hereafter to accomplish on a far wider scale, and even to a more perfect degree. Between Great Britain and the United States the struggle ought henceforth to be one only of loving and holy rivalry in self-improvement and in doing good. Indulging these views the British people can only contemplate with proud satisfaction and exulting hope the marvellous progress of their American kindred, and will lose no opportunity of cheering them onwards to great and noble deeds. So shall the whole world be blessed in these two nations that are but one people, and the blessing of the Most High will evidently fall on a race whose common ambition and prayer it is to be permitted to hasten the "latter-day glory."

APPENDIX.

DECLARATION OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

The most illustrious document of uninspired composition of which history furnishes any record is undoubtedly the Declaration of American Independence. This memorable instrument we subjoin. It is not by any means that this declaration is the greatest effort of human genius,—that it is the most eloquent or sublime of mental productions;—nor is it alone for its bold and manly assertion of human rights, and its defiant proclamation of the wrongs of a tyrannical government, that it is so illustrious and memorable. It is because it is connected with the successful struggle of a gallant people in a desperate but justifiable warfare for freedom and independence,—because it is a truthful recital of the causes and wrongs which led to and justified the most remarkable and eventful revolution which the world has ever witnessed. Justice sanctified rebellion, and success has immortalised its authors, its actors, and their deeds. Had Britain triumphed in the war of the Revolution, the names of Washington, Adams, Franklin, Jefferson, and their compeers would have been scarcely more distinguished on the page of history than those of Wallace, Monmouth, Argyle, Sidney, Russell, or Kosciusco. The document is as follows:—

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident:—That all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed;—that whenever any form of government becomes destructive to these ends, it is the rights of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation in such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will indicate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuse and usurpations pursuing invariably the same object, evince a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty to throw off such governments, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise, the state remaining in the meantime exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws of naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their emigration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat up their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the form of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose knowledge of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connexions and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are dissolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full powers to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declara- tion, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine

Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.

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George Walton.

ANNEXATION OF CUBA TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following article from the Washington "Union," the official organ of President Polk's administration, is curious and important, expressing as it does the undisguised intentions of the democratic party of the United States with respect to Cuba:—

The whole country, and doubtless the whole of Christendom, understands the importance of the island of Cuba to the trade and commerce of the United States. Leaving out of view the great fertility and vast productiveness of that island, and considering its geographical position alone, no one can fail to perceive that the government of the United States is compelled to look with a watchful eye upon the possession of that colony. It is the key of the Gulf of Mexico. It is the key of the mouth of the Mississippi. It is the key of the immense valley which now contains more than six millions of inhabitants, drained as it is by the Mississippi and its tributaries. It is the most fertile portion of the globe. Its resources are exhaustless. Not only cities, but States, spring up as if by magic, along its waters and in its bosom; and the day is not far distant when it will contain a population greater than the population of the whole continent at the present time. The commerce of this vast and fertile region, stretching from the Allegheny to the Rocky mountains, and from the northern lakes to the confines of Mexico, must empty itself into the Gulf. But then it has not reached the markets of the world. Even then it may be said to be landlocked and confined. The broad ocean must be reached before it is free to spread its sails and direct its course without restraint. In this point of view, the channel between the Florida reef and the coast of Cuba may be termed the key, nay, the mouth of the Mississippi. And commanding that "mouth of the Mississippi" is the island of Cuba, one of the most fertile countries on the globe. The nation that holds that island is at peace with the United States, and our vessels pass it freely and without fear. But this may not be always the case. Transfer that island to some great maritime power, and in case of war she will hold to a great extent, the keys of the Mississippi.

Spain has suffered from faction and intrigue. She is now comparatively poor and impoverished, and her government is weighed down with indebtedness; and from time to time rumours have come across the waters that other nations had fixed their eyes upon Cuba. Even in the English Parliament the idea was broached of seizing upon the northern coast of Cuba, and holding it as an indemnity for the heavy debts which are alleged to be due from Spain to the subjects of Great Britain. This question was deemed to be a matter of vast and vital interest to the people of the United States. The attention of the late administration was naturally aroused to such movements; and it would have been criminally indifferent to every call of duty and of patriotism, had it folded its arms and remained inactive when the great danger threatened us of Great Britain wresting from Spain the only sufficient outlet of all the commerce, too great for human calculation, which must soon float upon the Gulf of Mexico and along the Gulf stream, to the markets of the world. The American people would have said with one voice that this consummation should never be effected, and that a war with the Mistress of the seas must be entered into, if it were the only means of warding off the impending blow. We do not profess to know what were the instructions that were given to our Minister at Madrid. But we can very easily conceive a situation of things in which it would have become the duty of the United States to say to him that, though we are perfectly content to leave Cuba in the possession of Spain,—though we have not the slightest desire to interfere with her rights,—though we should

prefer it should remain in her hands, as it has hitherto done,—yet, if her necessities or her policy should prompt her to part with it to any other power,—if there be any danger of its passing into other hands,—into the hands of any great maritime power, of Great Britain, for example, whose powerful squadrons might control our western commerce through this island,—we should be willing to sound Spain, and know upon what terms we could obtain the island. Had it then been ascertained that there was any danger of the Spanish Government intending to cede that island, immediately or eventually, to Great Britain, in payment the of bonds which were due to the British Government, or to British subjects, or even to exchange Cuba for Gibraltar, there can be no doubt but that the late administration should have made every effort to forestall Great Britain, and to sound Spain about the purchase of Cuba. This is certainly no new course for us to adopt. It may be considered as the standing policy of our people; and, we may add, our Government. Witness the instructions which were given by Mr. Forsyth, in 1840, as referred to by General Cass in his speech on Yucatan. There was then a supposition that England was attempting to obtain the island, and it was then that the Secretary of State addressed his instructions to our minister. A similar rumour reached us last year; and without professing to know what passed, we can very easily conceive that it might become the duty of the late administration to ask the Spanish Government if they were determined to part with the island, upon what terms we could obtain it. The administration could scarcely have done less under the circumstances.

And we have all seen from the late official disclaimers of the Spanish minister that they never considered a negotiation had taken place at all. If our administration had failed in that duty, then would not the American people have arisen like one man, to prevent England from obtaining a controlling influence over the destinies of this continent? It has not only been the policy of our Government in times past, but the desire of our people up to the present moment, to prevent, at every hazard, any foreign nation from gaining such a footing in America as to jeopard our interests. Europe and Asia may rule the Old World as they may see fit to do, and our Government will never interfere. But then the United States claims the right to guard its own destinies; and while avoiding entangling alliances with foreign nations, they will never, but in an evil hour, fail to exclude foreign powers from obtaining such positions on our continent, or in its immediate neighbourhood, as will enable them to cripple our commerce, and shape as they please our future history. That the British Government has entertained the desire to bring Cuba under her dominion is sufficiently proved by the debates in the British Parliament on the Spanish debt. Even Mr. Reynolds, the discarded secretary of legation, does not deny it. On the contrary, he informs the country that after examining in person the fortresses of Cuesta and Gibraltar, and after obtaining other rare and valuable information, even he thought that the rumours of an exchange of Gibraltar for Cuba should receive particular attention.

TREATY WITH SPAIN.

Signed at Madrid, 23rd September, 1817.

I. His Catholic Majesty engages that the Slave Trade shall be abolished throughout the entire dominions of Spain on the 30th day of May, 1820, and that from and after that period it shall not be lawful for any of the subjects of the Crown of Spain to purchase Slaves, or to carry on the Slave Trade on any part of the coast of Africa, upon any pretext whatever, provided, however, that a term of five months from the date of the 30th May, 1820, shall be allowed to

complete the voyages of vessels which shall have cleared out lawfully previous to the said 30th May.

II. It is hereby agreed that from and after the exchange of the ratification of the present Treaty, it shall not be lawful for any of the subjects of the Crown of Spain to purchase Slaves, or to carry on the Slave Trade on any part of the coast of Africa to the north of the equator, upon any pretext whatever, provided, however, that a term of six months from date of the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty shall be allowed for completing the voyages of vessels which shall have cleared out from Spanish ports for the said coasts previously to the exchange of the said ratifications.

III. His Britannic Majesty engages to pay in London, on the 20th of February, 1818, the sum of £400,000, to such person as his Catholic Majesty shall appoint to receive the same.

IV. The said sum of £400,000 is to be considered as a full compensation for all losses sustained by the subjects of his Catholic Majesty engaged in this traffic, on account of vessels captured previously to the exchange of the ratifications of the present Treaty, as also for the losses which are a necessary consequence of the abolition of the said traffic.

SLAVERY IN THE MONTH OF JUNE, 1853.

Five slavers deposited on the coast of Cuba their human cargoes, numbering a total of 2,530 slaves, a portion of which were purchased by Don Antonio Pareja, the agent, and on account of Queen Christiana. Up to the 10th of June in the present year, the total number of African Slaves imported into Cuba, so far as information can be obtained on so difficult a subject, amounted to within a trifle of 10,000 souls. Can any one acquit the Spanish Government of complicity in the crime, or attempt any longer to beguile the British public with assurances of confidence in the promises of Spain, to suppress in future a traffic which she bound herself by solemn treaty to put down thirty years ago? We appeal to the people of England, whose honour and humanity are deeply identified with the question, to interpose between the minister and the thousands of miserable beings who are destined to become the victims of their morbid credulity or criminal disregard of official obligation. The people of England are doubtless identified with this question. They, by their Sovereign, are parties to a treaty by which immunity against this revolting system of plunder is guaranteed to Africa on the part of Spain. Four hundred thousand pounds were grasped by Spain as the consideration for this promised immunity, and by the treaty which conceded it England considers herself morally the surety for Africa, that this immunity should be a real and not a futitious one. For every African snatched from his home and consigned to an unlawful slavery in the colonies of Spain, since the date of that treaty, England is morally responsible, if any means within the power of her Government the abduction and enslavement of that unhappy being could have been prevented.—*Standard and Despatch, January and July 4th*, 1853.

There are hundreds of thousands of slaves in Cuba who have been imported into that island since 1820, and by the terms of that treaty, as well as the Spanish law founded on it, are *ipso facto* free. This number is being augmented each month by continuous traffic with the coast, and the people of England are compelled, by the commercial policy adopted in 1846, and the supineness of their Government, to become daily participators in the crime. Will they, we repeat, allow this to continue, or will they rise as one man and compel the Government to cleanse them from all participation in this iniquity, by enforcing the treaties peremptorily, at the cannon's mouth if necessary, not only in *future* but retro-

spectively, to the extent of declaring every slave free who has been imported since 1820? If they be honest in their avowed hatred of slavery they have a double motive for adopting such a course. Let them do it, and not only will the slave trade cease for ever, but slavery itself will receive its death-blow.—*Ibid.*

There is an importation of slaves into Cuba to the extent of 20,000 a year. The slave trade was fast declining under General Concha, but revived under Conedo, who was sent to supersede the former. The price of connivance now fixed in Cuba is reported to be twelve dollars for each slave—a sum which it is believed is shared among the subordinate officers.

THE END.

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